

Childhood Education

The Magazine for Teachers of Young Children

DOROTHY E. WILLY, Editor

FRANCES McCLELLAND, Associate Editor

Volume XIII

Number 8

Next Month—

■ Thirty instructors interested in teacher education have made suggestions for the content of the May issue which is to be of special interest to summer school students. There is to be a symposium on the trends in the three R's to which William S. Gray, William A. Brownell and Frank Freeman are contributing. Other articles include "How to Observe Young Children" by Loris Wagoner, "The Curriculum in Relation to the Maturation of the Child," by Arthur Jersild, "The Place of the Specialist in Elementary Education" by Mary C. Wilson, and "Humanizing Everyday Experiences" by Claire Zyve.

—The Editors.

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Published Monthly, September to May, by the

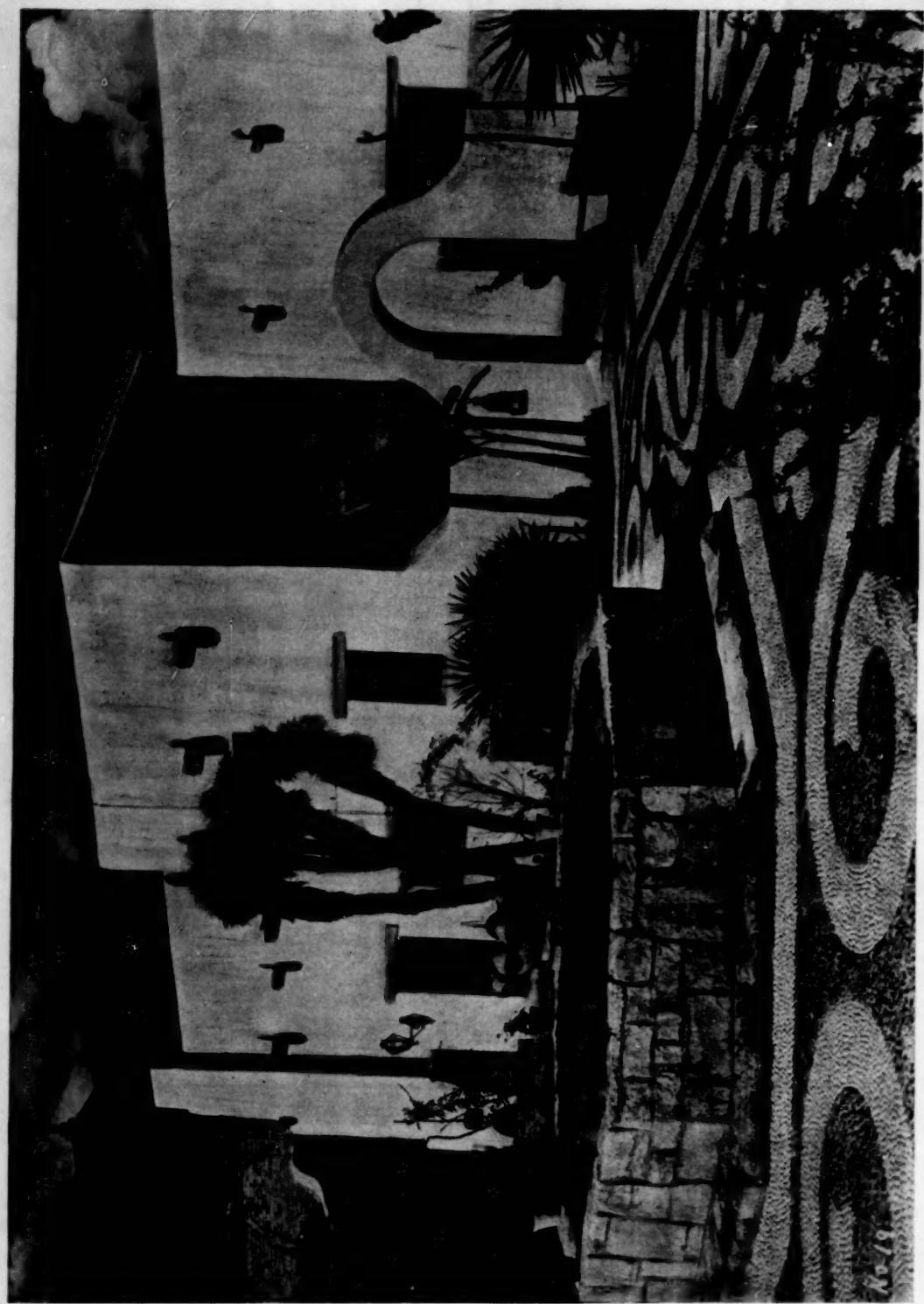
ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

With the Cooperation of the National Association for Nursery Education

1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C.

Subscription price \$2.50. A.C.E. membership and subscription \$3.00. Foreign postage 50 cents. Single copies 30 cents. Entered as second class matter at the post office at Washington, D.C., under the act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Menasha, Wisconsin. Copyright, 1937, Association for Childhood Education.

REPRINTS Orders for reprints from this issue must be received by the George Banta Publishing Company, Menasha, Wisconsin, by the 10th of the month of issue. Carefully indicate quantity, shipping instructions, etc.



Patio—Spanish Governor's Palace, San Antonio, Texas

An evening reception was held in this palace, April 1, 1937, following "The Texas Night."

Editorial Comment

The Future of Early Childhood Education

THE importance of early childhood education is not the discovery of present-day students of education. Four hundred years ago the Jesuits called attention to the permanence of experience of the first seven years of life. Fathers and mothers have been fully aware of the significance of the education for which they were almost wholly responsible, as well as of that for which schools, churches and other agencies shared responsibility with the home. Only in rare instances, however, have professional school workers been aware of the importance of the education which each child has as a result of his home and family life.

There has been a tendency, during the past four generations, to move activities, which were once regarded as family responsibilities, out of the home and into specialized agencies. Production and preparation of food, making of clothing, recreation, the care of the sick and incompetent, and care of the dead, were all integral parts of the life of each family. All of these activities have moved out of homes into specialized institutions or agencies.

There has been a continuous extension of public responsibility for education. Compulsory attendance laws follow the establishment of educational opportunities. Efforts to standardize practices in public agencies are an integral part of centralized control and tax support. Nursery schools established by the Federal Government during the past four years have given momentum to early childhood education. Efforts are already under way to bring about legislation in several states to make it permissible to establish nursery schools as a part of the public school system. This is the first step; standardization of practice and compulsory attendance are likely to follow.

IF OUR country is to move in the direction of more and more regimentation and more state control of individual life, care of babies and children under five or six years of age is inevitable. If, on the other hand, our country continues to recognize family life and family responsibility as a basic social institution, which, with all its imperfections, still holds potential individual and social values not even so effectively provided by any other social organization, we may throw emphasis upon better education for parenthood.

Education in schools and colleges for family life and parenthood has not been done well enough or widely enough to test its possibilities. Education for parents has not been provided in an effective manner over a long enough period to be sure that parents can be responsible for all of the education of young children in the best way. Our concern for the

welfare of children must include concern for the welfare of their parents.

We are told that the very foundation of mental health is a task which is accepted and acceptable, with freedom to plan and execute the task. There can be no doubt that early childhood education is a task of first importance. It is, traditionally, an acceptable task for parents. That is, it is within the range of the ability of parents. The great majority of parents accept the task willingly. As parents "know the truth" and achieve freedom from fear and ignorance and prejudice, they may preserve their own continued growth by taking on personal responsibility for early childhood education as well as for the physiological care of their children.

IT is true that concentration of populations and changes in housing for families, as well as the economic necessity for work by both parents, have hastened the tendency by the public schools to undertake to provide nursery care for young children. It may be that efforts to bring about legislation which would subsidize mothers of children under six years of age might have more social value than legislation to make nursery schools a part of the public school system.

There can be no doubt that in the future early childhood education will call out the thought and consideration of school administrators, school teachers, teachers' colleges and parents as it never has before. Final pronouncement upon the forms that should be provided for it should rest upon the thinking of fathers and mothers as well as upon that of educators and research workers.—VIERLING KERSEY.

Men in the Primary Field

THE primary field is one of the most fascinating in education today. Yet, few men enter it. Adverse social opinion and lack of sufficient salaries are factors which keep many from even investigating this field. Those who do, meet the children intermittently rather than constantly as do regular women teachers.

Men have much to offer little children. Watch any youngster working or playing with his father. Watch any primary room when one of the male sex takes charge for a time. Children need more contacts with men, who, by their very personalities, have something different to give them—different, mind you, not superior.

COLLEGE classes need to be re-organized so that the man student has more opportunity to observe small children. Even if we are unable to enlist them as teachers of young children, we shall at least have superintendents, supervisors and principals who are much more intelligent regarding young children.—D. E. W.

The Present Educational Scene

HOLLIS L. CASWELL

SOCIAL conditions and issues of great complexity and seriousness have led during recent years to a highly critical consideration of the functions, aims, procedures, and scope of organized education in American life. Voices have been raised to question the value and significance of almost every phase of the educational program. At the same time educational shortages have been brought to the fore. Marked currents of thought and practice have emerged and come into conflict—conflict which upon occasion has been characterized by a lack of tolerance and respect for opposed views. The result has been an educational situation of unparalleled uncertainty and great confusion.

Gradually, however, extraneous and less important considerations are falling into proper relationships to major issues and problems, and more clearly defined and recognizable points of view are emerging. Out of this clarification of positions arises recognition that American education faces the necessity of defining more clearly than ever before a fundamental direction of movement and development. An effort to arrive at such a definition is, I believe, one of the most significant characteristics of the present educational scene. The work of the Educational Policies Commission,¹ reports of state groups such as the committee on Goals of Education in Michigan, and the activities of national committees in the preparation of state-

This is the address given in New Orleans by Mr. Caswell, Professor of Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, before the Department of Superintendence meeting at which the 1937 Yearbook, "The Improvement of Education: Its Interpretation for Democracy," was presented. At this same meeting Harry Elmer Barnes spoke on "The Present Social Scene" and Frederick H. Bair, "The Future of Education."

ments such as a Charter for the Social Sciences, are indicative of a recognition of the need to develop a more adequate basis upon which to project America's program of organized education.

Adequate definition of the desirable direction of educational development in American democracy was held by the Yearbook Commission to be the foundation of a sound program of educational improvement and interpretation. The Commission, therefore, took a position on the relation of education to social change. Consideration was given to the argument that schools should provide social stability by staying back from the frontier of social development and conserving that which has proven good and valuable. Recognition was given to the rising emphasis upon intellectualism in American life and education, with the suggested withdrawal of organized education from the current social scene. Neither of these positions was considered adequate in view of the inevitable dependence of democracy on education.

There seem to be only two possible methods of social change, the one orderly and gradual, dominated by information and di-

¹ The Educational Policies Commission was appointed in December 1935 by joint action of the Executive Committees of the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence to aid the profession in clarifying and directing their efforts toward the solution of problems in education and to stimulate thoughtful, realistic, long-term planning within the teaching profession, looking toward the continuous adaptation of education to social needs.

rected intelligence, and the other violent and sudden, based upon exasperation, desperation, and hatred. So far, it is admitted, the powers in control of society have rarely surrendered to change without either violence or collapse. But the ideal of democracy envisions the solution of social problems however difficult and complex they may be, by the application of intelligence and information. Thus democracy by its very nature depends upon education for guidance of social change. "If we are to have social change achieved through orderly and informed direction," says the Commission, "its guidance must be a function of education." While the school is only one of many agencies which affect the education of a people, the fact that it provides the program of organized education places on it the responsibility of assuming major leadership toward the accomplishment of this all important social goal.

The function that any public agency is able to perform depends upon the adequacy of its personnel, the enlightenment of the public, and the conditions under which work must be prosecuted. These factors provide a basis for the further evaluation of the current situation in education.

It must be admitted that the personnel of American public schools as now trained is inadequate to the task which a revolutionizing technology has set for education. The education of teachers, even according to traditional academic standards, is woefully inadequate. One-fourth of all the teachers in the nation must pass in review before there is seen one individual who has more than two years of training beyond the high school. And this training, sad to relate, was probably taken in piecemeal sections, lacking relationship and sequence. In all types of training programs, however extended, little concern as a rule is given to the general social education of teachers. Preparation is often in narrow fields of specialization suitable for training in research but not for developing a

socially significant program of public education. The result all too frequently is teachers with narrow interests; teachers who know little about the problems faced by the people of their communities and by the nation; teachers who conceive their function largely as teaching certain prescribed subject matter, and who remain aloof from the current of social life about them.

The lack of general understanding by teachers of the social responsibility of education frequently exerts a devastating influence on the program of the school. Competing interest groups often struggle for larger and larger portions of the time of the pupil; essential interrelationships of subject matter from various fields are accomplished only with great difficulty; much of the content of school experience is unrelated to significant aspects of life; and large areas of social life in which education is greatly needed are not given consideration in the educational program.

Gloomy as this picture may appear, there are certain very encouraging phases of the current situation in teacher education. In a number of states and cities educational leaders have recognized the need for enlarged teacher vision and understanding of fundamental social and educational problems, and are taking action to improve conditions. In at least a dozen states, under the direction of state departments of education, teachers are pursuing organized study programs which give major consideration to the responsibility of schools in a democracy, and new and encouraging efforts are being made in a number of cities to provide for continuous teacher education. The way in which teachers generally take advantage of these opportunities for in-service training is a most encouraging indication that teachers stand ready and willing to move forward.

The Yearbook Commission recognized that an adequate teaching personnel is basic to a sound program of educational improve-

ment and interpretation. For organized education to contribute significantly to the clarification and realization of democratic ideals, teachers must have deeply grounded appreciation and understanding of those ideals, they must have an intimate knowledge of social conditions as they actually exist, they must see their specialized fields of competency in relation to the larger social responsibility of organized education, and they must have that maturity and judgment which make them respected leaders in community life.

A public so imbued with the ideals and methods of democracy that it will insist for all institutions and individuals the full exercise of democratic rights and procedures is both a means and an end for education in a democracy. Without these rights and procedures education is impeded and to the greater and greater extension of them education is dedicated. One of the most alarming and disturbing characteristics of the present educational scene is found in the general ignorance and apathy of the American people regarding the function of education in democratic life. Proposals for significant modifications in the educational program usually encounter the objection that the public will not tolerate change. On every hand a struggle must be waged against the persistent belief that schools should do only those things they have always done. Tireless efforts have been required to provide opportunities of recognized value, such as those in music and art. Much greater vision, determination, and fearlessness are required to move in the direction of a more socially significant education which undertakes directly to relate the democratic ideal and method to the conditions and problems of contemporary life.

At the same time the public is apathetic to the use of the schools as an agency of propaganda for selfish business interests and frequently condones the actions of minority groups in enforcing restrictions upon free-

dom of thought and inquiry, in denying the right and obligation of teachers to present all the facts on problems regardless of what the facts may show, and in hampering the use by the school of the fundamental democratic procedure of considering at all times all methods available for the solution of problems. Thus, in the large, the American public is not encouraging the school to assume a larger burden in providing that education which is absolutely essential for gradual and beneficial social change; rather it is tending to look upon the school as a static institution of limited function, which should respond largely without question to whatever influences other aspects of our social organization bring to bear upon it.

In this situation are mirrored inadequacies of the educational offering. The importance of an educational program which provides opportunity for the continuous study and analysis by adults of social conditions and needs has been realized only recently. Consequently, organized education has not been used to develop public understanding and support of a socially significant school program. At the same time programs of educational interpretation of the advertising and selling type have been employed all too often to the exclusion of more fundamental types of interpretation. Frequently, basic problems and issues have been evaded or concealed, with the tendency to lull the public into complacent and unthinking acceptance of the educational program as it is. The inevitable result in such cases has been fear of change and an unthinking tendency to hold to traditional practice.

It is the position of the Yearbook Commission that such programs of educational interpretation have seldom made significant gains and frequently have been harmful to the cause of public education. Adequate educational interpretation should be based upon a broad social philosophy; it should encourage and guide the public in considera-

tion of basic problems relating to the place of education in democratic life and the adequacy of current practices; it should be a continuous process rather than a sporadic one which is concerned only with the accomplishment of immediate ends.

Conditions of work in public school systems are affected by many factors. Adequacy of salary, size of teaching load, quality of supervision, available instructional materials, and tenure are but a few of these influences. In most of these matters there is almost unbelievably wide variation in schools throughout the nation. Administrators generally are making determined efforts to improve such conditions and thereby to increase the effectiveness of education.

In the current educational scene a factor of major significance in affecting conditions of work is the basis of teacher-administrator relationship. The administration of schools many times has tended to be mechanical, inflexible, and authoritarian. This condition has arisen largely because industrial managerial concepts have been carried over sometimes almost intact to school organization. This has contributed to efficient business management in schools but has exerted an unfortunate influence on the relation of administrators and teachers. Instead of developing and enlarging the colleague or cooperative concept, the executive in education, whether principal or superintendent, has often become in fact a manager. As a result there has crept into organized education the labor-manager idea to the detriment of teaching. Conflicts between administration and instruction are not unusual and a unified professional front frequently is lacking. Most unfortunate is the repressive influence thus exerted on teacher intelligence and initiative.

Significant efforts are being made, however, to interpret the implications of democracy for school administration, both as it

affects teachers and pupils. Steps have been taken in some school systems to free teachers from authoritarian administrative restrictions and other steps have been taken to give teachers a larger part in planning the educational program. Administration is being conceived increasingly as the means of liberating the intelligence of teachers for group attack on the problems of educating boys and girls. Intelligent variation is encouraged and thoughtless conformity disparaged. Thus there appears in the present educational scene to be a new spirit and vision in administration and organization.

In seeking an evaluation of the current educational scene one point stands out in particular. While there is widespread disagreement on almost all educational matters, there is almost universal agreement that the present program of education is inadequate to the task at hand. Although this spirit of dissatisfaction is greatly disturbing to many, it carries with it a most hopeful feature. Disturbance is essential to improvement and there is present with the spirit of dissatisfaction a widespread readiness for change. It is an encouraging fact that there seems to be hardly a school system in the nation which is sitting complacently with its program.

The time may well be ripe for a period of highly significant educational advance. The present search for a generally acceptable direction of educational development, the widespread concern for enlarging the social understanding and vision of teachers, and efforts to organize the school so as to liberate the intelligence of teachers provide a stimulus that will inevitably lead far beyond the existing program. The school may now be confronted with possibilities such as have never been faced before of becoming an effective instrument for interpreting, perpetuating, and improving in actual living the highest ideals and practices of democracy.

A Library—Magic Word

DOROTHY KAY CADWALLADER

A VACANT room! Magic words! And in a school which until September 1935 had been so crowded that thirty-seven children had been herded into a room twenty by twenty-three feet in size. The question was, what to do with this vacant room. Twelve children, a representative from each class, kindergarten through sixth grade, met for a conference. They found bare walls with the paint peeling off, gray blackboards, an unsightly sink, three windows through which the sunshine streamed only about twenty minutes early in the morning, and two built-in cabinets with solid wood doors. Suggestions were made as to the use of this room in a school where space was at a premium. It was decided to make it into a library.

To turn an unattractive bare schoolroom into a school library necessitated careful planning. Ideas tumbled from the youngsters as, one after another, and many times together, they suggested bookcases, tables, chairs, wall hangings, curtains, paintings and a screen. Out of the chaotic list came an orderly one, and committees were formed to speed the work.

The room became the center of real activity as the boys from several grades worked together under the janitor's supervision making bookcases and tables. The third and fourth grade boys made orange crate chairs, while the older boys turned old tables, previously supported by ugly trestles, into library tables with real legs.

The younger children sandpapered furniture; one of the third grades made a wall-hanging from monk's cloth designed with Indian symbols in red and black wool which required seven months to finish. When completed, it represented the composite work of

Miss Cadwallader tells a delightful story of how the children in the Washington School made their library which is having a far reaching influence upon the life of the school community. Miss Cadwallader is Principal of the Washington and Hewitt Schools in Trenton, New Jersey.

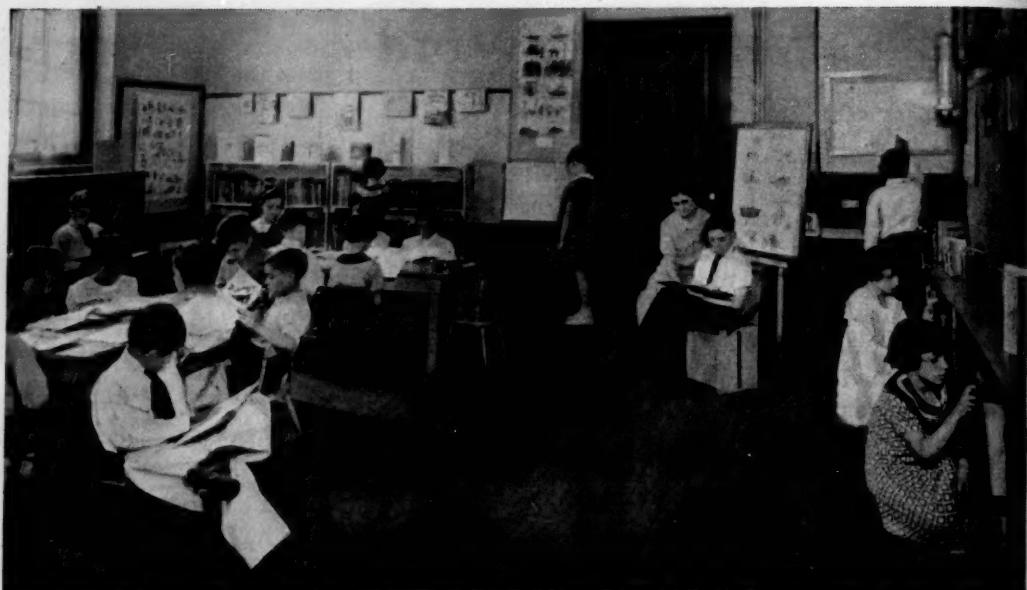
forty eager children. It was used to cover the most unsightly spot in the room.

Another third grade reproduced on unbleached muslin with crayons the history of early Trenton. The fifth grade made wooden dolls and dressed them in Colonial, Frontier, Puritan and Indian costumes as they studied these periods.

The standard of workmanship for the library furnishings was high, and when the children heard that the janitor had been a painter in a carriage and automobile factory and could give expert help on the painting job, their respect for his knowledge of a trade was increased.

A third grade boy who could not read and had never felt the joy of academic achievement was voted the best painter. When the parts which required the greatest skill needed the "master touch," it was with one accord that the older boys said, "Louis, you do that; you paint the best." What joy for Louis—to have the approval of others! Surely the mental hygienists would have thrilled at the change in this youngster.

Lettuce green enamel paint was used because this dark room needed light. All the old chairs—big and little—that could be corralled were painted. Bookcases were fastened to the wall by hooks so that they would not tumble over. Tables were placed, chairs arranged, blackboards covered, and yellow curtains, the color of sunshine, hung



The library of the Washington School, Trenton, New Jersey. These third-graders are having their daily library period in the room they helped to transform.

at the windows. All was in readiness to receive the books.

Each class sent its finest picture books, collected and purchased from a fund set aside by the Board of Education. The fifth and sixth grades each year for nine years had received new books on American history from the General Mercer Chapter of the D.A.R. of Trenton. When these were assembled, it was found that there were enough to fill one of the largest bookcases, so they were kept apart from the other books. Here one can find such beautiful books as *Hail Columbia* by Lawson, *Presidents in American History* by Beard, *Children of the Handcrafts* by Bailey, *Gateway to American History* by Adams, *Pinafores and Pantaloons* by Choates, *Hitty* by Field, *Humphrey* by Flack, *Historic Ships* by Holland, *The Men Who Found America* by Hutchinson, *The American Costume Book* by Haire, *Little House in the Big Woods* by Wilder, *Farm on the Hill* by Horn, *Those Who Dared* by Saunders and about one hundred other titles equally entrancing.

This is one of the most worthwhile pieces of work done by the D.A.R. chapter. Each year they hold a meeting in the school when the books are presented so that chapter members may have the privilege of knowing the children of our Italian citizens, and so that the children may know the descendants of those who played so important a part in the founding of our country. Thus, tolerance is engendered and race prejudices are broken down through better understanding and knowledge.

It is fun to hear from a woman born in Boston the story of Paul Revere's Ride as she heard it from her grandfather and as he heard it from his grandfather. Thus, Time is spanned!

It is equally inspiring to hear how the best spaghetti and cheese in New Jersey are made near our school by some of the parents of these children. To know that the murals in one of our Trenton theatres were painted by an Italian. To know how many parents came from the country where Raphael and Leonardo da Vinci lived. Pride in ancestry and

country is a fine thing, providing smugness is kept in the offing.

What else appeared on these shelves? One section contained nothing but books contributed by the Trenton Garden Club: *Wild Flowers Every Child Should Know* by Blanchen, *Among Green Trees* by Rogers, *Outdoor Flowers* by Wright, *Wild Flowers and Ferns* by Durand, and *A Handbook of Nature Study* by Comstock. These can be consulted when help is needed in nature study or science.

The great majority of books was arranged alphabetically by the author's last name. Large kindergarten blocks were enameled orange and the letters "A" or "B" or "C" were painted on them with black ink. These blocks were fastened to the shelf where books beginning with the designated letter could be found. This helped the children to learn where to place the books after using them.

Of the thousand or more books thus arranged there is so great a variety that children of various reading ages may be satisfied. This arrangement eliminates a feeling of embarrassment if a sixth grade girl chooses to read *Snippy and Snappy* by Wanda Gág, because her reading ability is on that level. In fact, it has stimulated an acquaintance with the illustrators of picture books and their delightful illustrations that would probably not have been fostered so easily and so successfully in any other way. The children's librarian, Miss Sue Hilson, of the public library, who has been a constant source of inspiration and stimulation throughout this project, approved this simple arrangement.

Some of the most popular books on the shelves are: *The Good Master* by Seredy, *Ay-Chee, Son of the Desert* by Birney, *Ola* by the d'Aulaires, *The Story About Ping* by Flack, *Tooky* by the Haders, *Young Cowboy* by James, *Snipp, Snapp, Snurr and the Magic Horse* by Lindman, *The Little Auto*

by Lenski, *Cinderella* by Sewell, *Miki and Mary* by the Petershams, *Nancy* by Nichols, *Steamboat Billy* by Tousley, *Baby Bear* by Williamson, *The Songs We Sing* by Van Loon, *Nicodemus* by Hogan, *Mister Penny* by Ets, *Millions of Cats* by Gág, *The Little Wooden Farmer* by Dalgliesh, and others.

From the 1175 books gathered together in this one room there is always something to appeal to the varied tastes of each individual. Children have become acquainted with books that they never knew the school owned by thus assembling them in a central place. This library is a fine supplement to the classroom libraries of thirty books or more which the city library furnishes to each grade and which are changed frequently.

Fortunately, just as we opened the library a W.P.A. worker was sent to us. She learned from the public librarian how to catalogue the books, how to repair them, and how to keep them clean. Each book has a pocket and a card with the name of the author and the name of the book. The book is always catalogued by the author's last name and by the title, and sometimes by subject. The making of the subject index is a long, slow process, for each class is working on it. As a subject is studied, a list of the books on that subject is prepared by the class. For instance, last year the third grade made a subject index for Eskimos and Indians; the fifth grade, transportation, and the first grade, Mother Goose. Thus, each class will have a part in the making of the subject index and it will have more meaning because of this participation.

Each class is scheduled for the library for twenty-five minutes each day. This schedule is made out for a period of six weeks. The time of the specific period for each class changes weekly so that one week a class may go from 8:45 to 9:10 and another week from 3:05 to 3:30. Since the schedule is made up so long in advance, classes can arrange their work accordingly. Books, as a

rule, are not circulated. However, if a class wishes to use a book for a week or two, it may be taken out.

Individuals are not urged to take out books as there is a branch of the public library nearby. It is hoped that the greater interest in books stimulated by the school library will increase the circulation in the public library. Frequent visits by the children's librarian help to foster and nurture this hope. The cooperation between the school and public library is ideal.

The library period is used in different ways. Sometimes the teacher reads to the children. Again, they read to themselves or look up reference material. They read poetry; perhaps they just look at pictures. Frequently, they discuss the illustrators and sometimes the format of books. Always in the teacher's mind there is the idea of variety in the reading diet, for she is conscious of the fact that it must be well-balanced.

Even a library in this day and age cannot stay within four walls, but reaches out into the community. The parents became interested and they and the children and teachers working together prepared a spaghetti supper for the community. The big purpose behind this was to help the mothers feel a real pride in preparing food in the Italian way so that others who knew nothing about it might appreciate it. It was a lovely supper and the experience the women had in using the new electrical appliances in the kitchen was thrilling. The children, dressed in Italian costumes, acted as tray girls. Whole families ate together, laughing and joking. The fact that seventy-five dollars was added to the library was fine, but greater than that was the friendly, cooperative spirit that was established between various groups.

Italian recipe books which had begun as a third grade activity but had spread to the whole school were sold the night of the supper. Later, when the D.A.R. women came to present books to the school, the Italian

mothers prepared samples of the various recipes and displayed them in the library.

After the program, in which each class participated by showing in some way the contribution of the Italians to America and to Trenton, the D.A.R. women asked to sample the food. It looked very attractive—antipasto, minestra, octopus, and spaghetti. The director of the Y.W.C.A. Cafeteria happened to be a member of the group. One of the children served as interpreter and she found out from the Italian mothers how to prepare Pastiere so that she might add it to the cafeteria menu.

Money to spend—what a joy! Books to buy—a greater joy! Who will buy them? Some, of course, the principal and teachers should select. But the children, also, should have a share in the purchase of books. Therefore, a representative from each class was chosen to be on the purchasing committee.

After a two weeks discussion in the various classes, the children and the principal went to a bookshop to select the books. One little black-eyed youngster spied *The Dionne Quintuplets* and spent the rest of her time in the bookshop looking at books with the story of these babies tucked under her arm. That was her choice!

Hendrick Van Loon's *The Songs We Sing* satisfied a first grader's desire for a song book which his class had suggested he buy. *Green and Gold* by Berta and Elmer Hader was found to be just the book to supplement the study of bananas for a fourth grade.

A kindergarten boy who had come from Italy only four months before had chosen a book about cats as soon as he arrived at the bookshop but, as the children were ready to leave, he announced he didn't want that book. There was great consternation and each child wanted to help him. After some time he chose *The Dirigible Book* by Pryor. The next day he told his teacher he didn't want the book about cats because there was one in the library like it. When asked to find



Photograph contributed by Rose Bowker

The library in the Carew Street School, Springfield, Massachusetts. The two librarians—older children—are helping the younger ones find books to read.

it, he took *Angus and the Cat* by Marjorie Flack off the shelf. While it was not exactly the same, nevertheless, there was great similarity between the two.

Other choices were, *Willy Nilly*, *The Small Man and the Tall Man*, *Round the World*, *Five Little Bears*, *Tirra Lirra*, *A Book of Princess Stories*, *Skeezix and Uncle Walt*, and *Indians Today*.

The purchases were displayed in the library and the selection discussed. Only time will tell how wise the choices were, for a choice made today may not last long. A year from now, an evaluation of the choices in

the light of the number of children who have read each book, how well each book was bound, the range in ages of those who enjoyed the book, and the length of time the book was in popular demand, should be most revealing.

A bookseller can be a real help in shaping children's choices. Children should know him for he can be a real friend. This is an unexplored field and who knows but that it may be the key which will raise the reading taste of the American public.

Don't miss the opportunity to have a library in some corner of your school!

Playground Equipment

JANE W. MCKEE AND LILLIAN GRAY

THE place to play is almost as important as the play itself, and bears the same degree of inter-relationship that environment does to heredity, one enriching the other. However, an examination of playgrounds does not indicate any recognition of this inter-relationship. Certainly very few of the findings of child study experimentation seem to be applied to the planning of playgrounds for children. Instead, grave contrasts are revealed between the ideal and the existent.

THE NATURAL PLAYGROUND

Of course, the ideal playground would be the natural playground, with wide, rolling surface, fenceless and tree-full, if we may coin a descriptive term. Up and down the grassy hill of this ideal playground children might run, roll and slide, jumping ditches, climbing trees, digging into the earth to make caves, pools, harbors, and using nature's materials of rocks, tree leaves, branches and uneven ground to shape their joyous play projects.

THE AVERAGE PLAYGROUND

Compare the ideal playground in the above description with the average playground to be found in most cities. What incentive to play lies on a surface leveled to billiard-table accuracy, paved with a hard, dazzling rock preparation, and equipped with cold or burning hot (as the season affects them) steel poles and girders, ladders and chains? Not even a tree nor a shady nook make play pleasurable on hot days. Only a few formal flower beds and well-guarded grass plots suggest what might have been—if playgrounds were built for children, rather than made to serve mistaken notions of econ-

Have you ever thought of the possibilities of a rocking chair as a piece of playground equipment? Or a sheet with holes in it, hung on a tree limb for target shooting? Or a teddy bear sitting on a saw horse to suggest further possibilities for its use? Mrs. McKee, Director of Broadoaks School, Whittier College, and Mrs. Gray, Assistant Professor of Education, State College, San Jose, California, give delightful suggestions for the choice and use of playground equipment.

omy, safety and sanitation. There is nothing truly economical about denying our children the right to play in a suitable environment; no greater safety lies within a steel pole and chain than in a tree. As for sanitation, are earth, leaves and trees to be considered dirty?

NATURAL PLAY MATERIALS FOR THE PLAYGROUND

Those play spaces and materials which closely approximate what the children choose, if left to their own designs, often call forth a greater degree of sheer joy and abandon to the ecstacies of play than the more commercial types, though many of the latter are splendid. For the benefit of the parents and teachers who may wish to provide at small cost, considering the large profit of play involved, a few of these more informal instruments of play, we have prepared detailed descriptions. It will be noted that many of these play instruments are of the type to promote self-testing play, an activity which is useful in stimulating the growth of self-confidence.

Springs:—Recall the joy you had as a child when, upon waking early in the morning, you jumped and somersaulted on the bed springs? All children seem to enjoy this

activity. A piece of apparatus to satisfy the very evident play need we have here can be made of an old pair of bed springs, covered with a dark canvas, padded a little bit, if possible, with old quilts, and put out into the play yard.

Logs:—Unending fun may be afforded to groups of children through the medium of logs. They may be sawed two feet long from telegraph poles. The children like to roll over them, stand erect on them, balance on them, put them in motion, and generally travel about on them.

Springboards:—Springboards are indispensable play tools in all swimming pools but have failed to make the appeal to school teachers and builders of school play equipment. An elastic board, long enough to give slow, even, rhythmic bounces, and securely fastened at one end incites the gayest kind of skipping, jumping, and balancing play.

Tripod-pulley:—A tripod of saplings fastened at the top, with a rope and pulley dropped to the ground, is limitless in play possibilities. The children lift the weights, fasten boxes, boards and baskets to the free end of the rope and bend and pull and stretch and hang as they lift them on high, or perhaps seat themselves in a basket and go gently gliding up as in an elevator. These are just a few of the many ingenious play situations that we have observed with the tripod and pulley.

Boxes:—Few teachers and parents realize the endless play possibilities that lie hidden in boxes. Select a packing box, about four feet square, firmly put together and open on one side. From this as the largest, select evenly graded boxes down to one quite small, about eighteen inches square. Enamel these boxes in bright attractive colors. Place them like a nest out under the trees, and stand by and watch. The boxes are drawn out, forming steps to be climbed up, jumped off and piled. They are scattered about like houses and buildings. They are shoved, lifted and

rolled over, affording a most excellent opportunity for all-around physical exercise and development.

Box-target:—From the limb of a tree, porch, roof or pergola beam suspend a cardboard or wooden box by a rope hanging from a point about five feet above the ground. The bottom of the box should be removed. On the four faces of the box cut out round holes. With bean bags or balls the children throw through the holes of this target. This hanging target should be so constructed that the children themselves can lower or lift it.

Horse:—In an open air school, at the time of tree pruning, a weird gnarled branch was discovered that, with the addition of one support, took on the form of a horse. The thing was so realistic as to head, neck, legs, body and even tail that there was no mistaking it. The children, with one accord ran to it, mounted it, rode it, named it and have declared it their most prized out-door plaything. It now boasts a saddle, stirrups and a bridle.

Spring-rope:—From a branch of a tree, eight or ten feet from the ground, drop a rope one and one-half inches thick with a heavy ten inch coil spring at the top. Tie a knot at the bottom of the rope, which should be fourteen inches above the ground. The children may wish to tie other knots along the length of the rope until they learn how to climb. Climbing, jumping, springing and bending are activities called out by this simple play device.

Slides:—Smooth boards from eight to twelve feet in length with hooks, or wooden blocks attached under one end with which to hold them to the top bar of a fence, make lovely slides, bridges, and inclines for walking and balancing. Parallel poles made in the same manner to hook over the horizontal bars of a fence also make nice slides.

Ladders:—Ladders of all kinds find their places on a play ground. Rope ladders, step

ladders, climbing ladders, placed upright or swung horizontally, tempt the children to self-testing play.

Sacks:—Take six clean burlap sacks and dye them different colors. Fill them with sawdust, or excelsior, and place them about on the playground. The children pile them and jump over them; they spread them down and use them to jump from and to jump on. They string them from the trees by ropes to sit on, to kick and punch, and in general, play with them in a hundred different ways.

Cans to kick:—Collect tin cans with tight fitting lids, and enamel these different colors. With ropes passed through them children make stilts on which to walk. Without the rope they use them to kick about the playground. Cans of equal size filled with different things, light and heavy in weight, add to the kicking surprise in the many original games which the children evolve.

Sheet-target:—A sheet, dyed in attractive colors, with holes large and small cut at different places in it, high and low, suspended from a hanging tree branch or porch roof, forms a delightful target through which to throw bean bags and balls. Many interesting original games have evolved through the use of this material. The children, hidden from each other, stand on different sides of the sheet, and throw the objects through it.

Hoops:—The hoops from barrels or wheels that were so fully enjoyed and played with twenty-five years ago are still the joy of boys and girls today. With and without sticks to turn them, painted or not, they are lots of fun and stimulate joyous running play.

Tire swing:—An old automobile tire swung from a tree branch by a rope makes an excellent swing for the child who sits within or balances himself on top. Two of these swung side by side and about five feet apart with a board placed between them form an excellent play device for swinging and balancing.

Barrels:—Barrels and kegs, painted or not, some with lids on and some open, stimulate all types of play.

Piano box:—A piano box and packing boxes always suggest fun. Out of them he builds a play house or uses them in which to hide and pack things. Stood on end a piano box with holes on one side just large enough for the toe and finger grasp, provides an excellent challenge for the child to climb up and down.

Punch and kick ball:—The case of an old soccer, football or basketball, when stuffed with excelsior, cotton seeds or sawdust and swung from a tree branch by a rope, forms an excellent plaything to be kicked or punched, depending upon its height from the ground. We need more play materials which afford legitimate opportunity for kicking and punching.

Tree climbing:—For those play spaces not having trees that may be climbed and for those that do, a tree that has been felled can be planted or placed in the play field and, when stripped of the smaller twigs and tested for safety, becomes a challenge for all manner of play. Climbing, hanging, twisting, chinning, and pulling one's self through the branches and sliding down the limbs are just a few of the forms of play which we observe on this age-old plaything.

Swing-branch:—If the tree mentioned above does not have a smooth springy limb parallel to the ground and extending out some six or eight feet from the trunk, and a foot or so above the head of the child, locate such a branch and attach it to your jungle gym, fence or ladder so the children may have a light, springy branch from which to hang, jump and swing.

Saw horse:—Every play space needs a number of saw horses, both high and low, built substantially. These make good hurdles, and the high ones are nice frames for tents. They form supports for see-saws, horizontal bridges and ladders.

Fence:—All play space should boast of a panel of fence for climbing. If the fence is made of upright and cross slats, it is excellent for climbing and to use in supporting the elevated end of the slide board or ladder. If the palings are far enough apart, the children can have the joy of crawling through them as well as placing the ends of boards in them for slides. Add to this fence panel a good old-fashioned gate with weight or spring to draw it closed, and hinges so strong that swinging on it will not mean its doom.

Rocking chair:—What child has not delighted in the joy of sitting back-side-foremost in some old rocking chair, legs through the back and feet riding the rockers in the rear, grasping the arms like the reins of a horse, and gliding over the floor rhythmically? Reclaim the old-fashioned rockers, mend them and use them with or without backs for this sort of rollicking play.

ARRANGING EQUIPMENT

Just having the most complete and perfect equipment in all the world is no more the panacea than just having the best trained teacher, if the usefulness of either is curtailed by ineffectiveness. A teacher is ineffective when she fails to make contacts with the children in a positive manner. Equipment is ineffective when it lies unused or stimulates wrong use or unbalanced physical results on the part of the user. Therefore, the method to stimulate correct and sufficient use of equipment is quite as important as the equipment itself. The crux lies in properly exposing a variety of good equipment.

The ability to arrange material in such a way that it will invite play, and having invited it, will stimulate wholesome, many-sided play responses is an art. In this connection it has been found that play apparatus should not be scattered over too large an area unless it has been carried there by a play-group that has first been introduced to it in a

closeup situation. In other words, the play apparatus, or the playground, like a well-balanced meal, must satisfy all the physical needs of the child within a limit of time. If play apparatus is scattered, a child is apt to go to a certain thing and play with it for hours or a whole day to the exclusion of the other equipment, just because he has not been near enough the other play things to have their possibilities suggested to him. Just as in eating, if only bowls of soup are in evidence the hungry child is apt to partake of soup to such an extent that his keenness for the rest of the dinner is gone. Therefore, uniting the play apparatus in a single center is advisable.

Another item which enlists the interest of the child is seeing the play possibilities in things that are not in use. This can best be accomplished by placing the equipment about in a suggestive atmosphere—a teddy bear sitting on the saw horse or balanced on the end of the spring board; some cans to kick, placed temptingly at the top of a little hill, or a ladder leaning against a garage wall.

The traditional playground sacrifices the play wants of little children to such adult gods as economy, safety and sanitation. Analysis would raise a question concerning the superior safety of hard gravel surfaces and steel chains and bars over trees, grass and earth. As for sanitation, there is nothing truly dirty about a natural playground. The only count left is economy and its importance can scarcely be weighed against the importance of child development. If denied natural and normal play spaces, equipment, and materials, a second alternative suggests itself. Materials can be improvised to meet the children's preferences for fun and action. This type of playground equipment includes easily secured or cheaply constructed objects that yield a rich harvest of play activities, and generally afford excellent opportunity for all-round physical exercise and development.

The Kindergarten in America— Modern Period

Alice Temple

PREVIOUS articles in this series have dealt with the origin of the kindergarten in Germany and with its introduction and early history in our own country. It is the purpose of this article to sketch the story of changes which have come about in kindergarten procedures during the last forty years.

BEGINNINGS OF RECONSTRUCTION

Due to the untiring efforts of early workers in the field, kindergartens had been established in many parts of the country by 1897. As to procedures, the teachers in these early kindergartens were necessarily giving their thought and effort to understanding Froebelian theory—not an easy task taken in its entirety—and to putting it into practice. Not until about the 1890's had any serious doubts arisen as to the validity of either theory or practice.

The most outstanding figure among the early leaders was Susan Blow. Through her teaching and lecturing, her translation of Froebel's writings, her many publications, her strong personality, and especially the kindergarten curriculum which she formulated, Miss Blow exerted a far-reaching influence. Of her and this curriculum Miss Forest writes:

Miss Blow, who was a German scholar, devoted much of her life to the study of Froebel's theories and to the development of a kindergarten program based on these theories. This program . . . quite generally determined the procedure in the kindergartens in the East for a period of about twenty years. It was organized around the *Mother Play* sequence of Froebel and it prescribed the way in which Froebelian play materials, the gifts and occupations, were to be

Miss Temple, Professor Emeritus of *Kinder-garten-Primary Education*, University of Chicago and Book Review Editor for "Childhood Education," presents the final article in a series of three describing the growth and development of the kindergarten. This series is published in celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the founding of the kindergarten in Blankenburg, Germany, in 1837.

used. The games, too, were planned in a definite order. Thus Froebel's theories, often, as he originally stated them, very remote from the practical needs of children, became yet more remote and far more rigidly organized in the hands of the first generation of American kindergartens. Preoccupied as they were with his mystical philosophy, his American interpreters lost sight of the delightful play spirit which lent both charm and practical value to Froebel's own educational work.¹

Fortunately, there were a few leaders in the Middle West and elsewhere who could not subscribe to the program thus described and who had the initiative and independence to develop procedures more nearly in harmony with the interests and needs of American children. Among these was Anna Bryan, a graduate of the Chicago Free Kindergarten Association. After a year or two of teaching, Miss Bryan was called to Louisville, where she organized kindergartens and established a training school. Seven years later, in 1894, she returned to her Alma Mater as principal of the training school and served it until her death in 1901. The school in Louisville was left in the hands of Patty Smith Hill. Thus, in these two cities, the movement, which led

¹ The School for the Child From Two To Eight. By Ida Forest. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1935, P. 2.

eventually to the complete reconstruction of kindergarten procedure, had its beginnings.

Fortunate indeed were these two young leaders, Miss Bryan and Miss Hill, in the encouragement and help which they received from the constructive criticism of such men as Francis W. Parker, the vigorous educational reformer of elementary education during the last quarter of the nineteenth century, G. Stanley Hall, leader of the child-study movement, and John Dewey, of the University of Chicago. While these critics accepted such fundamental Froebelian theories as education through motor expression and education through social participation they condemned, absolutely, Froebel's theory of education by means of symbols, upon which Miss Blow's program was based, and the unnatural methods to which this particular theory led.

DEWEY'S EDUCATIONAL EXPERIMENT

Dewey's general endorsement of Froebel's educational philosophy was quoted by Miss Holmes in the second article of this series. His famous laboratory school at the University of Chicago was opened in 1896. Two years later, after Dewey had come in contact with the type of work which was going on in the kindergartens under Miss Bryan's leadership, he secured one of her graduates to conduct the "sub-primary" division of the little school. A report of its activities,² published thirty-seven years ago, has a surprisingly modern flavor. Because the full report is available in a few libraries only, and because programs similar to that which it presents were to be found in some of the kindergartens of the Chicago Free Kindergarten Association at the time, it seems worth while to describe it briefly here.

The curriculum was based on the home and family, the domestic occupations of the household, and the sources of food, coal, and utensils. The subject material included the

house itself, its structure, furnishings, heating and lighting. In the spring, outdoor games and playthings, gardening, excursions and picnics engaged much of the children's time. Following is the daily time schedule, not strictly adhered to, however.

9:00-9:30	Handwork
9:30-10:00	Songs and Stories
10:00-10:30	Handwork
10:30-10:40	Games, such as Follow the Leader, while room is being aired and personal wants cared for.
10:40-11:15	Luncheon
11:15-11:45	Games and Rhythms

The report makes clear that there was careful distinction between the activities of the four-and five-year-old children. "The younger children learn to play together in simple games; learn to use their hands in the mere handling of simple material—large blocks like the Hennessey blocks, sand, clay, spools and other material, and a boxful of assorted toys which have proved valuable."

The five-year-old children equipped a five-room playhouse with furniture made largely of wood, and rugs woven of candle wicking on large frames made by themselves. In these and other constructions much miscellaneous or waste material was used. The children were thrown largely upon their own resources for planning and making the objects they needed and wanted. The four building gifts (enlarged) were used like any other blocks. The games were of the old-time folk type. Songs and stories were chosen from the best that were then available.

Dewey's justification of this type of program, in contrast to the uniform program so generally in use at that time, appears in the same magazine. Of the subject matter he writes:

The home life in its setting of house, furniture, utensils, together with the occupations carried on in the home, offers . . . material which is in direct relationship to the child, and which he naturally tends to reproduce in imaginative form. . . . There is sufficient variety in the ac-

²*The Elementary School Record, June 1900, 1:129-142.



Photograph contributed by Flora M. Dewey

The interior of a modern kindergarten. These children in the Rutgers University Demonstration Kindergarten are shown during an activity period.

tivities, furnishings, and instrumentalities of the homes from which the children come, to give continual diversity. It touches the civic and the industrial life at this and that point; these concerns can be brought in, when desirable, without going beyond the unity of the main topic.

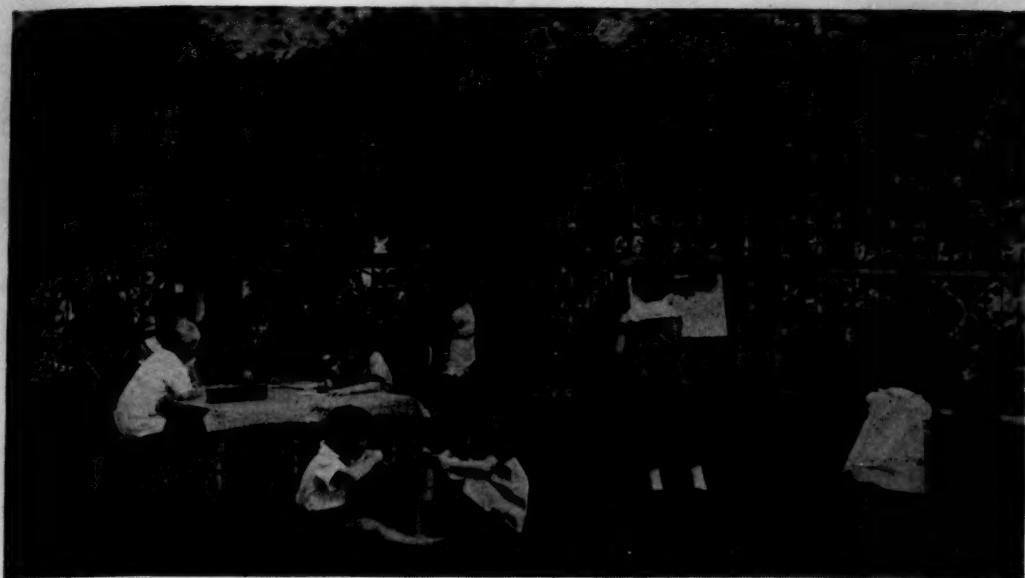
Of constructive work he says: It seems better fitted than anything else to secure . . . initiation in the child's own impulse and termination on a higher plane. It brings the child in contact with a great variety of material: wood, tin, leather, yarn, etc.; it supplies a motive for using these materials in real ways instead of going through exercises having no meaning except a remote, symbolic one; it calls into play alertness of the senses and acuteness of observation; it demands clear-cut imagery of the ends to be accomplished, and requires ingenuity and invention in planning; it makes necessary concentrated attention and personal responsibility in execution, while the results are in such tangible form that the child may be led to judge his own work and improve his own standards.*

* At this point Dewey acknowledges his "indebtedness to Miss Bryan and her able staff, of the Free Kindergarten Association, for numberless suggestions regarding both materials and objects for constructive work." Both materials and objects were very similar to those of the present day kindergarten except that the latter are usually on a larger scale.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROGRESSIVE KINDERGARTEN

Unfortunately for Chicago and the educational world at large, Dewey's experiment as such came to an end with his resignation in 1904, but not its influence on kindergarten and elementary education, however. The School of Education of the University of Chicago had been established by this time with a staff composed of teachers from the laboratory school and others who had worked with Col. Parker in the Cook County Normal School. Its kindergarten training department was under progressive direction from the beginning.

In the meantime, Miss Hill had gone as lecturer to Teachers College, Columbia University, and in 1910, became director of its kindergarten department. Teachers College thus became a center for growth of the progressive movement in kindergarten education in the eastern part of the country. Writing of her early work, Miss Hill says:



Audubon School Kindergarten, New Orleans

Modern kindergarten activities on an open-air porch.

As early as 1905, Teachers College made it possible for an experiment to be initiated in the kindergarten of the Speyer School with children from three or four to six years of age. The group with which this was tried was in charge of Miss Luella A. Palmer, Director of the Public School Kindergartens of Greater New York, who was at the time a graduate student in this department. The experiment started in 1905, was one of the earliest attempts in any field of education to apply the principles of democracy to school organization. To provide conditions suitable for training in the beginnings of self government, wide opportunities were offered the children for learning from each other, through their own experience, emphasis being laid upon the initiation and execution of their own purposes and plans.⁴

During these years, vigorous and even bitter discussion was going on between the conservative and radical groups in the field. The International Kindergarten Union, through its Committee of Nineteen, worked long and earnestly to bring the two groups together on common ground, but without success. The

final report⁵ of this committee, published in 1913, consisted of three reports, the first representing the conservatives, written by Miss Blow; the second, representing the radicals, written by Miss Hill; and the third, representing a middle position between the two, written by Miss Elizabeth Harrison.

It remained, then, for members of the radical group to make their position clear to educators in other fields. This they did by means of articles published in such journals as the *Elementary School Journal*, *Teachers College Record*, and others. Slowly but surely the movement for better ways of responding to the developing needs of children went forward.

INFLUENCE OF THE MONTESSORI METHOD

About this time the work of Madame Montessori in Rome was attracting the attention of teachers of young children in America and many kindergartners went abroad to study with her. In 1913 and 1914, Montes-

⁴ A Conduct Curriculum for the Kindergarten and First Grade. By Agnes Burke and others. Introduction by Patty S. Hill. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923. Pp. xxi.

⁵ The Kindergarten. Reports of the Committee of Nineteen on the Theory and Practice of the Kindergarten. Authorized by the International Kindergarten Union. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913.

sori lectured here, describing the work in the casa dei bambini and illustrating it with moving pictures. Following this visit, many Montessori schools sprang up in different parts of the country and for a while great interest was manifested in them.

They were relatively short-lived, however. The psychology and theory back of the system were not accepted by American educators, but its emphasis on the use of certain forms of play apparatus for physical development, on the so-called "practical activities" and on the teacher's place as in the background, have doubtless influenced favorably procedures in the kindergarten.

RELATION OF THE KINDERGARTEN TO THE SCHOOL

For many years subsequent to its adoption by the public school, the kindergarten was in no real sense an integral part of elementary education. Its program was too different in spirit, method and materials from the traditional grade work of the day to admit of genuine unification of the two. Gradually, however, as primary school work was influenced by such educational reformers as Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel and later, Parker and Dewey, the problem of the relationship between the kindergarten and the school became sufficiently acute to warrant consideration by the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II of each of the 1906 and 1907 yearbooks of the society was devoted to this subject. The last two chapters of *The Kindergarten in American Education* by Nina C. Vandewalker, published in 1908, dealt also with the relation of the kindergarten to the elementary school.

Discussion of ways and means of integrating the work of kindergarten and first grade was continued through the following years at educational meetings and in educational journals. In 1913 the Kindergarten Department of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, with the cooperation of the Dean

and the approval of the Director of the School, was reorganized. It became the Kindergarten-Primary Department. Henceforth, all work in the department was planned to meet the needs of students preparing for teaching in the kindergarten or first three grades. The School of Education was the first to establish such a department, as was logical, considering its inheritance.

A few years later, the Kindergarten Department of Teachers College, Columbia University, became the Kindergarten-First Grade Department.* Now Miss Hill and her staff had the opportunity to continue the experiment in "democratic school organization" begun in 1905 in the Speyer School and to develop forms of recording progress under the new regime. Eventually, normal schools and teachers colleges in all parts of the country organized kindergarten-primary departments and, following the example of the universities, lengthened their two- and three-year courses to four-year degree courses.

ADVENT OF THE NURSERY SCHOOL

During the second decade of the century and the years immediately following, elementary education, including the kindergarten, was being influenced by progress in fields outside itself—preventive medicine, objective methods in psychology, mental measurement, mental hygiene, all of which resulted in renewed scientific interest in early childhood education. Special centers for the study of the preschool child were the Yale Psycho-Clinic and the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station.

As one of the outcomes of this interest in child development was the advent of the American nursery school, according to Miss Forest. She writes also:

* It was about this time, 1916, that *Froebel's Kindergarten Principles Critically Examined*, by William Heard Kilpatrick, appeared. It gave the progressive kindergartner further encouragement and backing from an expert in the field of general education.

Our educational psychology, with its objective methods and developing techniques is at the service of the nursery school. Further, the American nursery school may draw directly upon the theory and practice of the progressive kindergarten, as these have been developed under the influence of modern educational psychology and philosophy.⁷

As a matter of fact, until courses were developed for the special training of nursery school teachers, the schools themselves were conducted very largely by kindergartners. Even today a large proportion of teachers in nursery schools began their teaching in the kindergarten. On the other hand, the kindergarten has profited by the fact that nursery schools were, in so many instances, laboratories for the study of child development, such studies often extending upward to include children four and five years of age. Kindergartens have been stimulated to examine critically their own procedure in the light of what has been learned about the special needs of the pre-kindergarten child.

THE I.K.U. AND THE A.C.E.

The International Kindergarten Union, from its beginning, contributed tremendously to the general progress of kindergarten education through its annual meetings and the work of its local branches. Its annual reports and published articles in *The Kindergarten Magazine* and *The Kindergarten Review*, together with material published by the Bureau of Education (now the Office of Education) reflect such progress.

Since 1913 the kindergarten has been represented in the Bureau by a member of the I.K.U. From 1915 to 1918 the salary of the representative was paid by the I.K.U. Since that time the service has been maintained by the government. For the last ten or twelve years the division has represented, not only the interests of the kindergarten, but

those of the primary grades and nursery school as well.

The Bureau of Education published a number of bulletins prepared by individual members of the I.K.U. or its Bureau of Education Committee. Among the bulletins for which the Committee was responsible are *A Kindergarten Curriculum*, 1919, and *A Kindergarten-First-Grade Curriculum*, 1922.

In 1924 the I.K.U. began the publication of its own journal, *Childhood Education*. Since that time, it has published material relative to primary school and nursery school problems in addition to material in its own particular field. A few years later the International Kindergarten Union secured for its magazine the cooperation of the National Council of Primary Education and the National Association for Nursery Education. Finally, in 1929, after working toward this end for some years, the International Kindergarten Union effected a reorganization under a new name, and with broadened purpose. It became the Association for Childhood Education, including in its new form three divisions—nursery school, kindergarten and primary grades.

Soon the National Council of Primary Education merged with the A.C.E. to the great satisfaction of the older organization. Thus the kindergartners of the country have been the leaders in organizing a national association whose effort is directed toward developing the best possible educational opportunities for children from two to eight or nine years of age. In this connection it should be noted that some of the local branches were successful in organizing kindergarten-primary associations before the national organization was able to do so. California, whose early kindergarten history is notable, is an example of a State Branch which has for many years maintained a vigorous kindergarten-primary association.

During the last decade the organization
(Continued on page 387)

⁷ Preschool Education. By Ilse Forest. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1927, p. 294.

Science as an Aid to Personality Development*

DAVID W. RUSSELL

AS AN approach to personality development, let us separate some of the character traits that are commonly exhibited by children in their daily living and relate them to the elementary science program.

USE OF INTELLIGENCE

The first of these traits is the use of intelligence which is directly reflected in all the activities of children and is a very important item in their development. Intelligence must be handled according to its capacity, and the broader the range of intellectual activities a subject can offer, the more adaptable it will be to personality development. Science is important in this respect for its opportunities are unlimited for the gifted as well as for the less fortunate child.

Various science activities such as the collecting of insects, moths, butterflies, and their identification are valuable in personality development. With a home-made spreading board, standard insect boxes, mounting pins, plaster of Paris plaques, specimens can be preserved for some time. Along with this activity comes some knowledge of useful insects like the darning-needle, praying-mantis, dragon-fly, cicada-killer, and others, as well as a recognition of the harmful codlingmoth, leaf-miner, white ant, and the common grasshopper. Knowing about these living creatures is intriguing to children and offers possibilities for any intellectual level.

Other interests and abilities can be utilized through leaf collecting. Preserving actual

Mr. Russell, a member of the staff of the National College of Education, Evanston, believes that certain character traits contribute to the development of personality. He names several of these traits and shows how science may contribute to their development and, in turn, to the personality of the individual child.

specimens, prints made with ink, toothbrush, and strainer, or with printers' ink, and blue prints, offer opportunities for achievement of an unusual nature and provide interesting conversation. Conversation is one of the child's greatest activities, regardless of his intelligence. Interesting conversation contributes to personality and character development.

While we cannot presumably change a child's intellectual level, through science we can utilize his capacity by providing him with a fund of interesting experiences. The science program can open new avenues of interest because almost every child's curiosity can be enriched through the elementary science curriculum.

There are also excellent activities which offer opportunity for the science program to influence a child during much of the time when he is not in school. In one instance, a child collected several boxes of specimens during the summer and returned to school with a fund of knowledge and experiences that contributed to a spontaneous personality, well respected in the classroom. Elementary science, with its unlimited scope, can meet a wide range of intelligence levels. Its great out-of-doors laboratory is often a proving ground for the borderline as well as for the

* This is the fourth article in the series on the contributions of subject matter to personality development, planned by Eleanor Johnson, Edna Dean Baker and John A. Hockett.

gifted child. It can provide happy experiences which are, after all, the essence of a well-adjusted personality.

SELF-CONFIDENCE

The second of these character traits which contributes to personality is self-confidence. Any child can overestimate his importance, under-evaluate himself, or just be "normal." When introspection becomes too strong in children, personality adjustment may become a real problem.

In a class, recently, there was a youngster who was "giving up." He was losing prestige, yet he was capable of doing excellent work. He so underestimated himself that in defense he became critical of everybody and everything. Finally, he began to spend his time with simple science. Test tubes, thermometers, ice water, doorbells, dry cells, and, last of all, a telegraph set occupied his leisure time. His natural capacity made him successful in activities which appealed to many of his friends. The boy changed. Self-satisfaction and achievement in elementary science were instrumental in his adjustment. Instead of being the disagreeable, unreasonable, I don't-care-about-anything boy, this lad developed into an interesting personality and occupied a high position in the esteem of his classmates.

One of the difficult situations to control is over self-confidence. In science, the know-it-all youngster can learn his lesson, too, for science cannot be bullied. Results are dependable according to scientific laws. An experience is recalled which disciplined a child for several months. He was warned not to disturb certain equipment but the lad, full of over self-confidence, thought he knew more than anyone else. He disturbed the equipment and caused himself considerable inconvenience and embarrassment. The outcome was effective.

Science has no favorites; there is no bluffing, but there is plenty of opportunity for

all. It isn't strange to find in elementary science classes that the inferiority and superiority manifestations are forgotten, for the lure of simple science tends to put these introspective tendencies in the background, at least for the time being.

AGGRESSIVENESS AND PASSIVENESS

Next comes aggressiveness which has been said by many to be a strong characteristic of modern children. If this is so, it is even more important to deal with it. The suppression of the overly aggressive child is a common practice in many classrooms today. He is often the non-conformist or a problem child and is frequently troublesome and irresponsible in his work. But he can find a challenge to meet his aggressiveness in the experimental or out-of-doors laboratory.

Science is its own safety-valve, even for the aggressive personality. The first indication of its effect on the aggressive child is his willingness to ask questions. Why doesn't this work? What's the matter here? and a hundred other questions. It is a fundamental rule that when guidance is requested, guidance is respected. Respected guidance is one of the best tonics for the overly aggressive youngster.

The passive child is not so easily interested, but if anything can awaken him, science will have a good chance. His release from hibernation will often be indicated by questions or a shy recognition of science equipment. Some children will be intrigued by dry cells and lights, by simple electromagnets, or by a compass. In one instance, children were asked to bring grapefruit seeds, peas, beans, or anything that would grow in an indoor flower pot. The seeds were scattered in different pots. No one knew which was which. Before long the green shoots appeared and there was unusual excitement, even for the passive child.

There is no general rule to be followed, for science itself is experimental and its ap-

plications in personality situations are likewise. But its variety can utilize the aggressiveness of the aggressive child and demand initiative of the passive one, with the hope for a change of pace toward better character development. When a child forgets himself in favor of other interests, the better side of his nature will tend to prevail. The very nature of a science program is expressed in the words of Goethe, "Nature shows no pause in progress and development, and attaches her curse to all inaction."

DEPENDABILITY

Another of our character traits directly related to personality development and adjustment is dependability. It is often conceded that the outward manifestation of obedience is the essence of dependability, but this notion must be qualified. It is the qualities in a child that are important. Character development must come from within and not be a veneer from without.

In the simple science laboratory or out-of-doors, dependable activities are demanded of our young scientist. When he comes to a realization of the underlying theme in all science, the interdependence of living things, his activities may reflect the same idea. Consider the thousands of living plants. They depend on the atmosphere, the soil, water, minerals, insects, sometimes animals, and even man for their very existence. The same is true of animals. They depend on plants for their food, the air, water, and other natural elements. Then man himself relies on plants and animals. The reason why any of these living things do not become superabundant is the great rule of the balance of nature. Even the very stars and planets that beautify the sky depend on certain forces and are related to one another. What would happen if the sun "went out?" Could we get along without plants and animals? Could we live as we do now without insects? What would happen if water contracted when it froze instead of expanding? Dependability

and interdependence in nature and its control by man is the very essence of science and everyday living.

In an excellent article published a few years ago Kilpatrick said, ". . . the worst things in the less fortunate boy are his lack of emotional stability, his lack of willingness to deal with life as it is. . . ."¹ Zachry advises us to ". . . help form the habit of facing reality squarely."² All of this is good advice and it can well be approached through the elementary science program.

COOPERATION

Now we come to cooperation. This quality is not inherited. It may develop as the youth matures. In elementary science experiences, unusual opportunities prevail for cooperation where there is a keen interest in searching, investigating, and adventuring. A group of children planning a nature excursion perhaps wants to explore for water life. Many plans must be made and cooperation, through mutual interest, is incidental and unavoidable.

Among the first things to look for are some of the twenty-four thousand specimens of algae. Unattractive in their natural habitats the specimens can reveal wonders under the microscope or even under a strong hand lens. *Ulothrix*, *ocillatoria*, *spirogyra*, and others are common. With bottles or tin cans, samples can easily be obtained. Algae can be grown in an ordinary aquarium or glass container filled with pond water. They grow rapidly and are most interesting to watch.

Next we can plan a search for vertebrates and invertebrates. With small nets swimmers can be captured. A fascinating hunt is for crayfish. In lifting rocks care must be taken not to disturb the bottom of the stream for muddy water protects the crayfish from view. Nature also conceals them by a natural camouflage of coloring. Besides, they propel

¹ "My Child As a Person." By William H. Kilpatrick. Teachers College Record, March, 1932.

² "Personality Development in the Classroom." By Caroline B. Zachry. Journal of the National Education Association, November, 1931.

themselves backward faster than forward. Under the rocks they'll go, quick as a flash. Cooperation in catching such specimens is important. We must make the most of it.

But let us explore some more. The plants in ponds are interesting and different from land plants. Some are rooted in the bottom of the pond with their leaves completely under water with spreading leaves, apparently floating. Others are floating water plants—their roots drifting in the water and the leaves floating along the surface. Try some of these excursions. Cooperation and other character traits that children possess and exhibit spontaneously in making these collections will be surprising.

SENSITIVENESS

The last of our personality traits is sensitiveness. Every child is sensitive to a certain degree and those who profess to be the least sensitive are often times the most sensitive. Sensitiveness may develop from self-consciousness, personal peculiarities, failures, and sometimes from continual defense from criticism. The trait is often recognized by an unusually close alliance with pets and the desire to win from them the affection that is not forthcoming from classmates or parents.

Other interests in pets fall into a different category. They may be simply a curiosity

concerning living creatures or a desire to dominate and control them. Often the first impulse of a child towards a small animal is to kill it; the second, to appreciate and understand it, and the third, to respect it. It is generally true that children must be taught to care for pets and not to mistreat them, but the hyper-sensitive child may have a deeper attachment.

The out-of-door science laboratory is often an opening for the sensitive child. There is no criticism from nature; its beauty and enrichment are designed for all.

To summarize, it is evident that guiding and developing personality is a difficult task. The new educational philosophy has made character development its primary purpose. Utilization of intelligence, self-confidence, aggressiveness, dependableness, cooperativeness, and sensitiveness must be welded together to make the child a person of emotional unity, an individualist but one willing to conform to the group. The child must face reality squarely. Science can help him learn to do so, but it is not a cure-all for all personality ailments, nor the only road to adjustment. It makes important contributions to a system of guidance because the nature of science activities provide opportunities for acquiring many desirable character traits.

On Calendar Street

March swept her porch with a flourish and swing,
Scolded her children and called them in.
Rattled her pans and hustled about
Large and blustering—but kind, no doubt.

Gentle April in the very next block,
Greeted the world in her new green frock.
Watched the blue birds nesting there—
Pinned a golden crocus in her hair.

Sunny May dreamed all day long,
Laughed with her children in rhyme and song.
Quiet and friendly, sweetly neat—
The nicest neighbor on Calendar Street.

—Martha Tilland

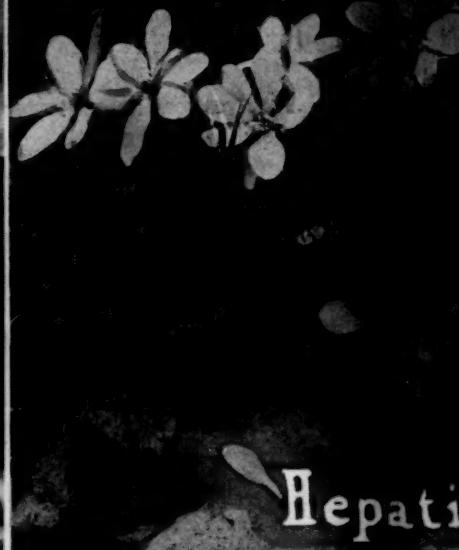


SIGNS OF

Jack-in-the-Pulpit



Marsh Marigold



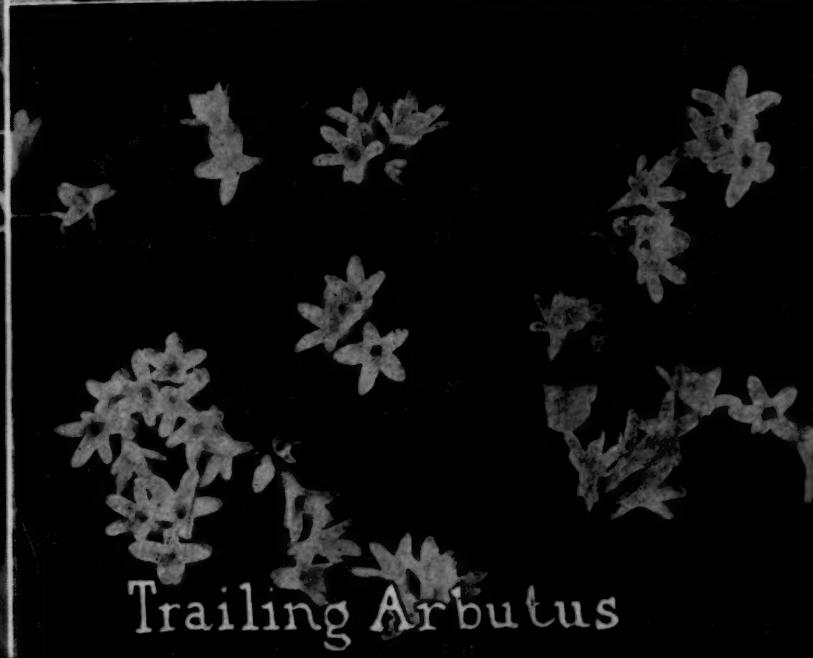
OF SPRING

Hepatica



Ill-scented Wake-Robin

of Red Birch



Trailing Arbutus

City Life in Third Grade

ELIZABETH DUDLEY

BEFORE small children can be expected to understand the far away and the long ago, they need as a foundation an understanding of the present. Life in the great city is so complex that many of the people and things that are of vital importance in their daily lives are either taken for granted or not thought of at all. Most children live, attend school, church and clubs, buy food and find amusement, all within a very small radius in their own little section of the city. An occasional trip to the office with daddy or to a big store with mother is as far as their interest in their own city extends. Even that is vague in their minds, merely being "down town" or "a long way from here."

When little children are learning to measure length or height it is very helpful to them to know the length or height of some very familiar thing to use in comparison. So in learning about social relationships, familiarity with the way one group of people manages common problems gives a basis for making comparisons. Even children as young as third graders can begin to develop an attitude of pride combined with healthy criticism, realizing that while their home city is a place to be proud of, there may be other ways of doing some things even better.

Our school and these children's homes are very close to the lake front. Discussion revealed that opinions differed as to how the lake front is laid out, so the class visited a lighthouse and the roof of a downtown lake-front building. Much sketching was done from there, showing the curve of the harbor, the breakwater, the location of lighthouses, a few streets, the railroad, and a few buildings. With this knowledge, and an acquaintance with a small section near the school as a

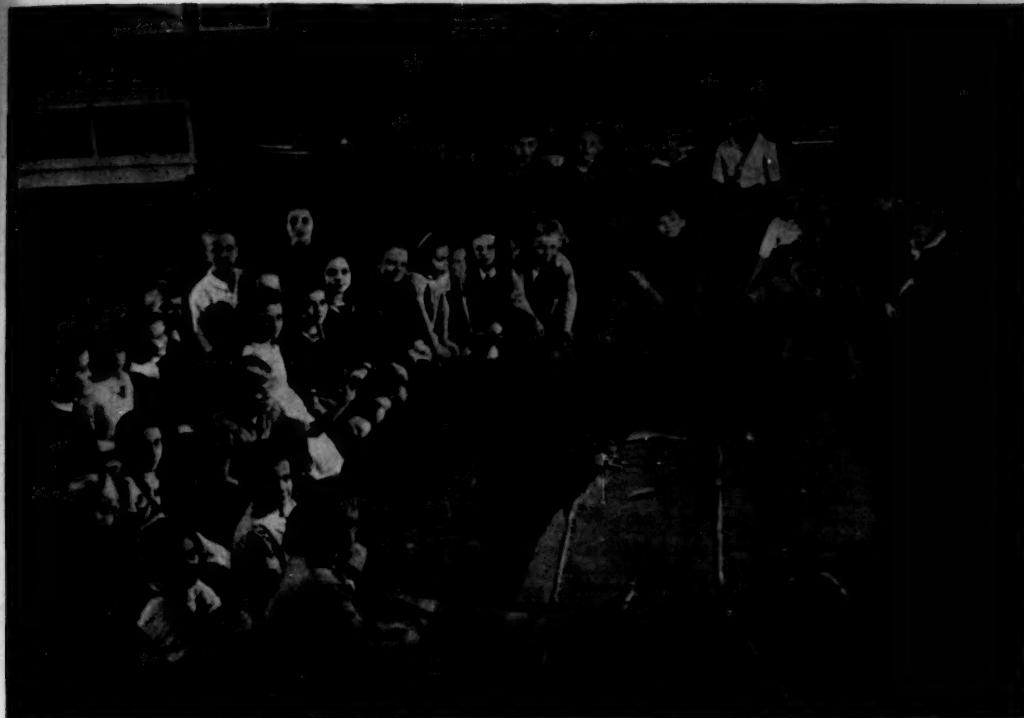
Miss Dudley is third grade teacher in the training school of the Milwaukee State Teachers College. She describes her third grade's study of their own community and includes a play which illustrates how children's social and economic concepts may be developed through dramatization.

starting point, a floor map began to grow. Blue paper served for the harbor, chalk marks on the floor for streets and railroads.

In the art studio each child fashioned from clay a tiny model of his own home, painted it and put it on the right street. The places we had visited and a few of the big stores were made, too. Some of the children whose homes are "a long way" from school began to orient themselves better when they realized that they couldn't leave their houses on the opposite shore of the harbor where they had first placed them, since they live between down town and school.

Tiny toy cars, trains and boats brought from home helped to make the map a fascinating play center from the first. When the speed mania of the modern age resulted in a crash that shattered a clay building, the class discussed how Milwaukee has gained a nation-wide reputation as a city of safe driving. Stop streets and rules of right-of-way were noted. A police chief was elected who strictly enforced safe driving rules by putting offenders off the map for a day or two.

Groups of five or six children then visited several places which are of importance in their lives—the post office, the bus and street car terminal, the weather bureau (which a hobby group has studied as a special interest), a fire station, a pumping station, and a wholesale food house. Each group went on a different day, and on returning made a re-



The third grade makes a floor map of Milwaukee harbor and the lake front.

port to the class and answered questions. Then the building visited was made and placed on the map, and the principal streets leading to it added.

The visits in small groups of five or six children had several advantages. Over stimulation which frequently results from a trip made by a large group was eliminated. The small group stayed together easily and each child heard everything the guide said, and saw everything as it was being discussed which is often impossible with a large group. The opportunity of reporting their experiences to the rest of the class, and of answering the questions was a valuable experience, particularly for the less articulate children who, in this case, were speaking to a genuinely interested audience.

Although the greatest benefit was to those who went on the trips (every child went on one), a check-up showed the interesting fact

that the stay-at-homes gained in no case less than twenty per cent less than those who went, and on four of the six trips, only one to five per cent less. It is also interesting to note that those who did not go on this trip but had made the same visit in an earlier grade and participated in the class discussion rated slightly higher than anyone else.

No check was made or mentioned until all trips had been completed, so listening and questioning were prompted by interest, not by thought of a test to come. When the tests were given, it was made clear to the children that they did not matter so far as their own personal records were concerned, but were a check-up to see whether or not explanations had been clear enough to be well understood.

As reports were given, they were taken down and later typed, illustrated by the children, and made into books which proved to be the most popular books in the room for



Dramatic play on the floor map.

many weeks afterward.

The climax of the whole piece of work was a play about city activities. The teacher introduced to the children the characters of Mr. and Mrs. Grouch who didn't want to pay city taxes. They were hailed with glee by the children who speedily made things happen to the pair to make them understand the importance of tax supported departments. This is the play:

HOW THE GROUCH FAMILY LEARNED TO PAY TAXES

A Play by the Third Grade

Scene I: At the Grouch home and at Isolation Hospital. (The door bell rings)

Mr. Grouch: One of you children go and answer it.

Dorothy: All right. (She comes back with a letter)

Mr. Grouch: What's this? What? More taxes?

Mrs. Grouch: You children go on out and play. We must talk business together. (The chil-

dren go) What'll we do about it?

Mr. Grouch: I won't pay.

Mrs. Grouch: No. I don't want to either. (The children come in)

Paul: What's the matter with Dorothy? She's all red.

Mrs. Grouch: She looks as if she had scarlet fever. You'd better call the doctor, Mr. Grouch.

Mr. Grouch: Lakeside 2015. Hello, Doctor. Please come to Mr. Grouch's at 2922 Edgewood Street. Our little girl has something that looks like scarlet fever. (The doctor comes)

Dr.: Little girl, you'd better go to bed. Say, "AH."

Mr. Grouch: Is it very bad?

Dr.: Very bad. I think it is scarlet fever, her face is so red. She must go to the hospital.

Mr. Grouch: Come on to the car. (They take her to the hospital)

Mr. Grouch: How much will the hospital bill be?

Dr.: This is Isolation Hospital. It's free; there is no bill.

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CITY LIFE IN THIRD GRADE

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Mr. Grouch: How's that? It's a nice hospital. I should think it would cost a lot.

Dr.: It all comes out of the taxes everybody pays.

Mrs. Grouch: Well, maybe there is some sense to taxes.

Mr. Grouch: We must go home now. Goodbye.

Dr.: Goodbye. (They walk down the street)

Mrs. Grouch: It's too bad our child has to be in the hospital. Scarlet fever is bad.

Mr. Grouch: I suppose we can pay some of our taxes.

Mrs. Grouch: Yes, go and pay some, but not all.

Mr. Grouch: There are some men fixing the road in front of our house. It's a good thing. That road is rough.

Mrs. Grouch: (To the men) Poor men, you work so hard. Who pays you?

Workmen: Taxes. We get paid from the taxes.

Mr. Grouch: I'll pay some more because it is a good thing to have them fix the roads.

Mrs. Grouch: Yes, you'd better pay part of them.

Mr. Grouch: Would you put boards down so I can get the car out?

Workman: Yes, we'll fix it up.

Mrs. Grouch: That will be very nice of you.

Scene 2

At Home a Few Weeks Later

Mr. Grouch: This bill isn't nice. This old tax bill is here again.

Mrs. Grouch: Taxes! They're terrible! They make me mad.

Paul: What are taxes?

Mrs. Grouch: Taxes are what you have to pay. For what reason, I don't know.

Paul: I don't like taxes either.

Mrs. Grouch: It's bed time, children, come on.

Dorothy: Oh look! The stairs are on fire!

Mrs. Grouch: Help! Help! Fire!

Mr. Grouch: (At the telephone) Fire Department. We have a fire. Please come to 2922 Edgewood Street.

(Firemen come and have a terrible time putting out the fire)

Mr. Grouch: Is it all out yet?

Fireman: Yes, it's out.

Mr. Grouch: How much do I owe you for this?

Fireman: Oh, nothing.

Mr. Grouch: That's funny. Why not?

Fireman: It all comes out of the taxes.

Mr. Grouch: Oh, I never knew that.

Fireman: Well, you should have known by now.

Mr. Grouch: Thank you very much. Good-bye. I guess we can pay a little more on our taxes for the benefit of the firemen. I'll pay some for the hospital, and some for the roads, and now for the firemen. Now, if there's anything else, it isn't worth it.

Scene 3

The Museum

Dorothy: Mama, may we go away today?

Mrs. Grouch: Have you anything to do today, Mr. Grouch?

Mr. Grouch: No. Where do you want to go?

Dorothy: To the museum to see all those funny stuffed animals.

Mr. Grouch: All right, we can go. (They go)

Guide: Good afternoon, what would you like to see?

Mrs. Grouch: The animals, please.

Guide: All right, here is a big bear; and there's a crocodile.

Dorothy: Will they bite?

Guide: Oh no, they are stuffed.

Mr. Grouch: How does this museum keep going?

Guide: It's supported by taxes.

Mr. Grouch: Well, maybe it's a good idea to pay some taxes.

Mrs. Grouch: Yes, some taxes are all right.

Mr. Grouch: Let's go home now.

Guide: Goodbye.

Scene 4

The Police

Mr. Grouch: Is breakfast ready?

Mrs. Grouch: No, we have no oranges. Paul, you go to the store.

Paul: May I have some money, Mother?

Mrs. Grouch: Please ask Daddy to open the safe.

Mr. Grouch: Oh! The safe is open!

Mrs. Grouch: What? Is the money gone! It must be thieves!

Paul: Look, the window is broken!

Mrs. Grouch: We must call the police.

Mr. Grouch: Hello! Police, please. Hello, can you come to the Grouch's right away? Our money has been stolen.

Police Chief: Yes, we'll be right over. (They come)

Mr. Grouch: Our money is gone. Do you think you could find the robber?

Chief: I guess so. What happened?

Mr. Grouch: Mrs. Grouch wanted to go to the

(Continued on page 385)

Case Study Approach to Difficulty in Reading

BERNICE LELAND

THE problems of children who have great difficulty in learning to read despite the efforts of themselves, their teachers, and oftentimes their families as well, have been a major interest of the Psychological Clinic in Detroit for the past several years. We have studied a considerable number of these children with some care—some of them over long periods of time. In our files today are records of their successful learning-to-read performances. We have used the case study approach, by which we mean:

- a. Discovering symptomatic behavior by observing the individual in his efforts to learn, with informal notes, if possible, on his performances.
- b. Analyzing and interpreting the information gained from such observation, together with that from other sources such as tests, family, school and personal histories, physical examination.
- c. Teaching on the basis of conclusions which seemed warranted by the above—diagnostic teaching, if you will—remembering always that the diagnosis is tentative.

The chief concern of many teachers is for children who are mentally handicapped. The fact that their limitations are greater than those of children equipped with more adequate intelligence but emphasizes, in our opinion, the importance of helping them to realize that techniques of diagnosis and remedy are as applicable to them as to others failing in reading.

NON-CONFORMING BEHAVIOR AND INABILITY TO READ

Certain points of emphasis emerge as a result of the case studies which we have made: First, our problems of non-conforming

There are several effective ways of studying children, not only to discover their disabilities, but their abilities as well. Miss Leland, a member of the staff of the Psychological Clinic of the Detroit Public Schools, describes the case study approach to difficulties in reading. She gives four points of emphasis which have emerged as a result of their case studies and illustrates these points with cases taken from their records.

behavior and of delinquency are more intimately related to this inability to read acceptably than many of us appear to recognize. This is a very practical consideration. To be sure, it is often difficult to know which comes first—the hen or the egg—whether a child's inability to read first gave impetus to his delinquency or whether his non-conformity first promoted his disability in reading. By the time the trouble is discovered, the two are interwoven as a vicious circle although many teachers have not fully sensed this fact. Children perform as they do because they must, as a matter of human nature and human psychology, obtain certain satisfactions for themselves. Opportunities for these satisfactions do not present themselves during the reading period nor adequately at any other school period, for the most part, to children who cannot read. They therefore seek them elsewhere and in ways which are not socially acceptable.

Consider Alice who was a very stubborn little girl. She was seven years and two months old, in the A-first grade and a failure in that grade. Her mental age was six years and three months. Temper tantrums were her particular non-conformity. She tore papers into bits. She threw her books, broke her pencils, kicked and struck other children. She refused, upon occasion, with

amazing violence to have anything to do with any lessons of any description.

An observing teacher decided to look into the matter. She thought there must be a reason for such behavior aside from just a desire to be annoying. She watched Alice and discovered that she was doing unmistakable mirror writing which Alice herself apparently recognized as being not right when she had finished it. But, unable to untangle herself, and frantic with the effort of having done her best only to discover again that it was not right, she had a tantrum or shut herself away in a shell of negative behavior which no one could puncture at the time.

Another behavior case was James. He was ten and a half years old, in the 2A grade, a failure in every grade so far, and very unpopular with the principal and all the teachers. He did very irritating little things—crowded other children in the line, put his foot out to trip the other fellow, slyly tapped his desk with his pencil, and showed very little disposition to do what was expected of him. He could not read, but no one seemed at first to relate this fact to his general behavior. However, he has been studied and helped over a period of years. He now reads acceptably on a level with his mental age and the infantile behavior of those early days has been left behind with the directional confusion which was discovered to be largely responsible for his difficulties in reading. James is today one of the most dependable boys in the school—courteous, thoughtful, serious. He said not long ago, "I understand myself better now." Perhaps the most important contribution the public school can make to the life of any child is to help him to understand himself. But we must first understand him ourselves.

SOURCES OF READING DISABILITY

The second fact of importance is that there are many sources of disability in reading and not any one reason why children have difficulty. The question not infrequently asked by teachers, "why has this child not learned to read?" is much like that other question "what was the little brown bird I saw in a tree yesterday?" There are so many little brown birds sitting in trees, and so many sources of difficulty in reading that it is impossible to answer either question simply and in a straightforward manner.

Suppose we consider briefly what some of

the primary sources of trouble are:

In the first place reading is forced upon some children before they are ready to learn to read. There are various readinesses—physical, emotional, mental, perhaps. Mental age is one criterion for a mental readiness, lacking which formal reading is not a suitable activity for the child.

Consider, again, the case of James (referred to above) whose mental age of six years and four months suggests that his mental development was inadequate for the task of learning to read when he was first confronted with the problem two years previous to the test. What happens when a child finds himself in such a situation? Several things, apparently.

When you and I are faced with something that has no meaning to us, we drift away from it. It does not interest us and we give our attention to something else. These children do the same thing, thus developing habits of inattention to the task and acquiring mental patterns and attitudes which certainly are not favorable to intellectual achievement. These destructive influences complicate the learning situation greatly and, after years, it may be, of failure, it is not surprising to find that unfavorable reactions toward reading and toward school have crystallized. The whole picture is smeared with a deposit of emotional disturbance. It is often necessary to pierce a thick shell of defensive behavior which the child builds around himself before any attack can be made upon reading itself. It is doubtful that this can be done effectively in every case. Some children are so warped by failure that they cannot react favorably to the idea of reading. Any child whose readiness is not adequate for reading is up against something from the very first which he cannot negotiate. This is a fertile source of difficulty in reading and one not sufficiently considered in practice. Again, there are physical reasons for difficulty in reading.

A principal called the Clinic one day asking for immediate action on Louise. She wanted to know what to do about her difficulty in reading. She was, to the school, a severe case of reading disability. She was eight years old, in the second grade, and had a mental age of eight years. As a matter of fact, Louise could not see well. She had been provided with glasses a year or more before, but she had never worn them consistently. Although the defect was of slight degree, it operated to confuse her on words of similar pattern, particularly *fish* and *find*, *write* and *wish*, *pretty* and *pray*. These symptoms were readily discernible.

Jerry's case is perhaps not so simple. He is nearly eight years old, in the A-first for the third term and has a mental age of six years and nine months. His ability in sound discrimination averages considerably below his mental age. He is very restless—twisting and squirming all the time. His attention is so fleeting and misdirected that it is doubtful whether he understands most of the time what is expected of him. His teacher is unable to keep him at anything. The most casual start at making a case study, however, has revealed that Jerry has been treated at the hospital twelve times for running ears. There must be periods now, and there have been periods, certainly, during past years when his hearing was greatly reduced, and when the discomfort of sore throat, headaches and pain in the ears which he must have suffered was certainly not favorable to learning—reading or anything else. His present teacher is spending her energy getting his tonsils removed and his general physical condition improved. She is teaching reading when she does so whether she exposes him to words or not. It will be time enough to tackle the symbols of reading when his physical condition warrants his being expected to pay attention to the lesson.

The cases with endocrine disturbance are interesting. They seem to have one reading symptom in common—they forget. It is as though the word had never been. Teaching them is like writing in the sand—it is immediately gone. Sometimes the word is recognized the next day as having been seen before, but even with great effort it cannot be recalled.

Another reason for difficulty with reading is the tendency to be confused on direction.

This is a very serious handicap for some children and is certain to disturb the course of their learning to read.

Ralph was an astonishing case. He was a mirror writer early in his career. Although past eight years of age with an equal mental age and in the second grade, he frequently held his book upside down and his notebook work proceeded from the final page forward. He was frequently noticed backing down stairs, and his confused orientation was further apparent on performance tests, on drawing designs, on identifying his right and his left hand, and on matching words and letters. We have quite a detailed record of Ralph's learning to read and we have marvelled many times at the fortitude with which he faced his difficulties and worked to extricate himself from his tangles. He is now in the fourth grade. He well remembers his earlier confusion and has frequently expressed his gratitude to the homeroom teacher who discovered his disability and studied to remedy it. There are many cases similar to Ralph's in our files.

Next, we shall consider inadequate opportunity as another reason why children do not learn to read. However, the term needs some interpretation. There are some children who change schools so frequently that they are hardly exposed to reading in any one place long enough to "catch" it. Some children have been absent at critical vocabulary-getting times because of illness, extended vacations or parental irresponsibility. Certainly such children have not had adequate opportunities, but I am thinking, rather, of children whose learning abilities have not been served by the classroom procedures or techniques to which they have been subjected. We know that children do not learn in the same way. Some are less competent in visual fields than others, yet our presentations are mostly visual; some are incapable of close auditory discriminations, but we make little note of it in teaching. Some have short, some longer comprehension spans, but we do not know which is which.

There is the case of Nathan. He was ten

years old last spring with a mental age of eight years, nine months. He was seated in the 3B grade after spending four terms in the 1A and being on trial and pushed along. Nathan has the soft voice, the liquid drawl and the ready smile of the Negro race. Last winter he was utterly unable to read anything. He had been exposed to techniques which apparently were not appropriate to his mental make-up. A sentence, even a phrase at first was too long a unit for him. But when the unit presented was just one word, he learned. Now he is able to negotiate a second reader very well.

Marvin illustrates another aspect of inadequate opportunity. Several years ago he was a forlorn little boy about eight and a half years old with a mental age of nine years and ten months. He was in the 2A grade but far from able to compete with others in the grade and very conscious of his inability. Today, Marvin is in the sixth grade. Succeeding? At least for a year he has been comfortable and happy in school but now he is again filled with gloom. "I can get along all right, Mother, if they don't hurry me. But I can't read as fast as they want me to."

Marvin is entitled to some consideration. It is impossible for him to cover a page of informational material as rapidly as most other sixth graders can. Many another child has fallen by the wayside in the bitter competition of speed. Marvin's present teacher, with the information which we were able to give her, has made the opportunity for him which he needs.

There is no single source of all reading disability. It is equally and vitally true that never in the case of an individual do we find a single source operating alone. Rather, we find that each non-learning child faces many problems. His difficulties are as disconcerting as those of the one-armed man who must fan away the flies and at the same time blow his nose or eat a sandwich to ease the gnaw in his stomach. Every case which we have mentioned so far can be referred not only to the source of difficulty for which he or she provided an illustration, but to many others as well.

Consider James again. The sources of his reading disability were as follows: A mental

age under six years which upon entering the first grade made it impossible for him to learn to read. He was placed in competition with children of average and high intelligence. He was lost.

He had suffered for years from a diseased throat and running ears, with frequent absences as a result and much physical discomfort when he was present.

He was a mixed eye-and-hand preference case, confused in direction, uncertain which hand to use, and tending to proceed from right to left.

He was an adopted child of parents who had no intellectual interests whatever. The mother was overprotective; the father very harsh and unreasonable, given to loud criticism of the school, the government, the world in general. He experienced the emotional distress of repeated failure in spite of his best efforts.

James' difficulties have now been quite adequately met by the school. Each succeeding teacher has done her part to learn about him, to study him, to acquire a case-study attitude toward him. Perhaps he will never be a fluent reader, but he will read well enough to manage his own humble affairs and he will get on in the world because of the charm of his personality and the serious consideration which he gives to his difficulties.

Consider Marvin. His disability arises out of the following constellation: A physical growth beyond his years. He is as tall as his teacher and has always been so mature in appearance that much was expected of him. His mental age is advanced beyond his chronological age, causing him to be more than ordinarily aware of his failures.

Competition in a school where other bright children did not fail.

A very overprotective mother, an equally protective and ambitious father, a successful older brother.

A mild defect in vision during his early school experience.

Directional confusion in the visual field and something comparable to it in the auditory field.

NO ONE REMEDY

The third major point is that there is no panacea applicable to all cases. Remedies for the disability frequently appear when the sources are discovered. Sometimes a remedy applied because it seemed good sense will lead to further discoveries about sources. If one thing does not work, try another—something which promises to be effective because it fits what you find.

There are some children who cannot negotiate the blending of sounds. Yet some teachers insist upon "sounding out" as the method of word attack for these same children. Not infrequently have we found a child in whose mind the sounds have assumed such importance that he has never concerned himself with visual patterns. Sometimes it has seemed best to drop all reference to phonetic attack for a while. However, some children have trouble with sounds because poor teaching has confused them, while others seem to have a distinct disability in the auditory field.

We must not forget that the personality adjustment of teachers is an important part of this whole picture of diagnosis and remedy. It is natural to blame the children instead of ourselves for their failure. It is easy to believe that they are stupid and that our remedies were just right but were not effective because—well, because the children were to blame.

Flexibility, a disposition to try some other thing—lots of things—are essential qualities in the teacher who would do diagnostic teaching. The remedy which was suitable for one child may be completely ineffective for another or wholly applicable, depending upon how closely it meets the need of that child in his learning situation.

Materials, books, and techniques which we use in everyday good teaching can serve us well in cases of disability in reading if used with more intelligent reference to the child whom we wish to teach.

IMPORTANCE OF EARLY DETECTION

The last major consideration is the importance of early detection of these cases. Reading disabilities are problems of *degree* as well as of *kind*. Indeed, the degree aspect somewhat overshadows the kind. It is related to the matter of early or late discovery. The common cold is heralded by a sneeze. If the warning goes unheeded, the patient may develop influenza. Just so, some of the most exaggerated cases of reading disability began in a simple way, developing out of situations which were commonplace at the start but undetected or neglected.

The case-study approach to a child's difficulty in reading can help us very materially toward this goal of the best opportunity for every child because:

With such an approach, the teacher gathers very specific information about the individual who, in turn, reaps the direct benefit of her ideas. Teaching which knows which way it is going and why is the most effective teaching.

Furthermore, that same teacher becomes, through each case experience, more aware of and more concerned about every other case. She is thus enabled not only to remedy another difficulty more readily, but she sees more readily her opportunity to prevent difficulty in another child.

It is a stimulating experience to feel that the growth which one sees taking place in a child has come about because another problem has been solved by one's own painstaking effort. Such experience means growth for the teacher as well as the child.

When teachers are equipped to discover the non-learning child before the educational sneeze has developed into something fatal, we shall be much nearer our goal of helping every child to reach his maximum growth and we shall have fewer cases of reading disability. We shall have fewer children sitting through the ritual of one grade for several semesters, fewer personalities crippled by resentments and loss of self-respect, and fewer dissatisfied parents.

Across the Editors' Desk

Another Field Trip

THE Associate Editor has again had the pleasure of a field trip, this time into three southern states. The first visit was in Nashville, Tennessee, where under the guidance of Lucy Gage and Maycie Southall, many interesting things and people were seen and heard. First, there was the visit to the Hermitage, Andrew Jackson's home; the A.C.E. dinner at Peabody College with almost two hundred members of the county, city and college branches present; a tour of the city schools with Miss Oehmig; the drive to visit county schools with Miss Green; the morning in the demonstration school at Peabody, all interspersed with delightful breakfasts, luncheons, dinners and a seminar tea to uphold the tradition of southern hospitality.

From Nashville to Sheffield, Alabama, where as the guest of Grace Tietje and Virginia James the delightful TVA School was visited. Informal, happy, alive with learning situations, this charming officers' barracks school is making huge educational strides forward. It was an enlightening experience to visit it.

Then on to New Orleans for the meetings there. There is only space to report the two sessions of the National Council of Childhood Education—the luncheon meeting on Monday, February 22 and the afternoon panel discussion on Tuesday, February 23.

Luncheon Conference

WHAT is the Future of Early Childhood Education in the United States?" was the question discussed at this meeting. William H. Johnson, Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, emphasized the extension of the program for the education of young children to include nursery education as a part of public education, the enriching of the curriculum for all age levels, and the greater attention to maturation levels of child development as our present-day basis for curriculum selection. He illustrated his points by describing the changes in curriculum and administration which have been made in the Chicago schools in line with these trends.

Miss Bess Goodykoontz, Assistant U. S. Commissioner of Education, said that early childhood education in the future will make more comprehensive provisions for young children in the way of teachers, buildings, and materials; that closer attention will be paid to the development of the individual child; that administrative details will be eliminated and made over so that the development of the individual child will be more possible; that there will be reorganization of the elementary school in terms of child growth and development, and that there will be more adequate support provided for the education of young children.

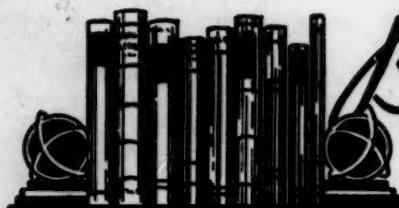
Miss Grace Langdon, Specialist in Parent Education and Nursery Schools for WPA, presided at the luncheon.

Panel Discussion

D. R. KILPATRICK was chairman of the panel discussion on "The Selection and Development of Teachers for Young Children."

The panel discussion defined personality "as those qualities or reactions of an individual which make it possible for him to interact with others"; emphasized the fact that when we know the kind of personality we want in children, then we know the type of personality we want in teachers; pointed out that students for teacher training should be selected not only on the basis of their personality but their interest in young children, their mental and physical health, their mental capacity and ability to work with people.

Supervision that is helpful, wise and stimulating; opportunities for continued study, attendance at professional meetings, participation in group meetings; active participation in those phases of school administration in which the individual is most concerned; recognition and use of the individual's specific strengths; encouragement to follow one's own personal interests, recognition that teaching is a dynamic rather than a static process, and participation in several aspects of community life were discussed by the panel as factors which contribute most to the continuous growth of teachers in service.



Book... REVIEWS

**THE PREVENTION AND CORRECTION
OF READING DIFFICULTIES.** By Emmett
*Albert Betts. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peter-
son and Company, 1936. Pp. xiv + 402.
\$2.00.*

During the last few years teachers and school officers have become increasingly conscious of the reading difficulties of pupils under their instruction. As a result, a surprisingly large amount of time and energy has been directed to the provision of corrective and remedial instruction in both elementary and secondary schools. So much attention has been given to such problems in many schools that far too little time has been left for basic or developmental teaching. In fact, the need is urgent today for concentrating more attention upon the initial development of efficient reading habits. For this reason, the recent book by Betts, which emphasizes the prevention as well as the correction of reading difficulties, is very timely.

The author's purpose in writing the text was to provide assistance for teachers who face the problem of helping pupils overcome reading difficulties. In this connection, he "has attempted to define certain issues, to discuss them in the light of available evidence, and to integrate the findings from allied research field" (vii). The basic point of view of the writer is that most reading difficulties "would be prevented by increasing the entrance age for the first grade by revising the first grade program of instruction, by providing a greater quantity of primary reading material with varied content, by grouping children in terms of general readiness for a given reading program, by beginning instruction with the learner's interest, and by the correction of physical defects" (p. 9). The importance of a program of well-conceived teaching which insures the initial development of right habits and the prevention of wrong or inadequate ones

cannot be over emphasized.

The book is quite comprehensive in scope. Chapter I discusses the incidence of reading disabilities and the nature of the problems which they present. Chapter II describes at some length the nature of a valid basic reading program and some of the teaching and learning problems involved. Chapter III seeks to identify the causal factors underlying reading difficulties. In chapters IV to XII inclusive, the nature, causes, and symptoms of various reading difficulties are considered at length. A considerable proportion of the space is also devoted to the discussion of tests, procedures and instruments by which reading difficulties may be diagnosed. Chapters XIII, XIV, and XV provide suggestive summaries of preventive and corrective procedures and methods. The final chapter presents a general summary of the content and point of view of the book as a whole. Each chapter includes an extended bibliography. An appendix of seventy-five pages is devoted to a description of the Betts *Ready to Read Tests* and the Betts *Fusion Tests* with directions for giving them and interpreting the findings.

Among the strong features of the book are its insistence on better initial teaching and the prevention of reading difficulties; its emphasis on the need for thorough studies of the deficiencies and handicaps of pupils; its detailed description of diagnostic and remedial procedures; its reliance, in general, on the results of scientific studies for the recommendations offered, and its vigorous and stimulating presentation. Its chief weaknesses relate to the sketchy character of some of the discussions, the evidence of haste in the preparation of several sections, and the relative emphasis given to the physical and the intellectual factors involved in reading.

By virtue of its general scope and content, Dr.

Betts' book is a stimulating and challenging addition to current literature relating to reading. It should be read by all teachers and supervisors who are genuinely interested in improving the teaching of reading and in providing help for pupils who have difficulty in learning to read.

—William S. Gray, The University of Chicago.

THE DEWEY SCHOOL. By Katherine Camp Maybew and Anna Camp Edwards, with an Introduction by John Dewey. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1936. Pp. xvi + 480. \$2.50.

Strangely enough there has never been published until now a complete, detailed account of the original laboratory school of the University of Chicago, that radical educational experiment conducted by John Dewey from 1894-1903. The writers of this book were both teachers in the school and have planned and written the book in consultation with Dr. Dewey. It may be accepted, therefore, as authoritative in every respect.

Dewey himself regards the book as timely. He writes in the introduction, "The problem of the relation between individual freedom and collective well-being is today urgent and acute, perhaps more so than at any time in the past. The problem of achieving both of these values without sacrifice of either one is likely to be the dominant problem of civilization for many years to come. . . . The school whose work is reported in this volume was animated by a desire to discover in administration, selection of subject matter, methods of learning, teaching and discipline, how a school could become a cooperative community while developing in individuals their own capacities and satisfying their own needs." (p. xv-xvi.)

The extent to which this desire was realized and the experimental procedures used throughout constitute the material of the body of the book. Its four parts deal in turn with the history and organization of the school, its curriculum based on social occupations, its educational use of scientific method and the organization of its personnel—teachers, children and parents—and an evaluation of its principles and practices. Two of the three appendices repeat somewhat material found in previous pages but

are included for purposes of cleanness. They are entitled, "The Evaluation of Dr. Dewey's Principles of Education" and "The Theory of the Chicago Experiment."

The Dewey School is a valuable contribution to the literature of progressive education.—A.T.

A CHILD'S STORY OF NEBRASKA. By Clara O. Wilson and Alice M. Cusack. Lincoln, Nebraska: The University Publishing Company, 1937.

Here is a realistic account of the development of Nebraska, written for children of grades three to six. It will prove captivating to any child in the Cornhusker state—so full is it of the real and thrilling experiences of our pioneers. It might well be called a child's history of the earliest times, even before the Indians, to the present. The excellent illustrations, equally authentic, add to the effectiveness of the descriptions of how people lived and traveled and enjoyed themselves in pioneer days, and with what courage they bore their hardships.

—Clara Evans, The University of Nebraska.

NOTES ON PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

EVERY TEACHERS' RECORD. By Ruth Strang. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. Pp. 48.

In the Preface to this pamphlet the author says, "There have been many excellent publications describing record systems which presuppose clerical help, the supervision of specialists, and teachers with skill in personnel work. There have been no publications describing a record system which would be suitable for schools having none of these advantages. It is the aim of this pamphlet to meet the latter need."

To this end the author presents, through examples and in other interesting ways, the value to the teachers of records of various types which will be of great help to them in understanding their children. She describes certain types which are easy to keep, the information for which is available and which do not require specialized skill. Among the types described are autobiography, samples of pupils' work, reprints of interviews with parents, and others. Rural school teachers will welcome the suggestions given.

BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

Reviewed by May Hill Arbuthnot

TEN SAINTS. By Eleanor Farjeon. Drawings by Helen Sewell. New York: Oxford University Press, 1936. Pp. 123. \$2.50.

Here is a book to minister to the child's life of the spirit. In prose that is simple, cadenced and strangely moving, Miss Farjeon has told the story of ten saints. All the stories are dramatic and she has made even Saint Simeon Stylites, that particularly uncomfortable Saint, seem appealing and real.

Christopher, Martin, Dorothea, Bridget, Patrick, Hubert, Giles, Simeon and Nicholas are the bright galaxy of Saints, leading up to the perfect climax, St. Francis of Assissi. Miss Farjeon's tales have that joyous quality which, we learn, characterizes all authentic Saints. For some children these stories will have special religious significance: for all children they have the beauty and power of noble themes nobly told. Helen Sewell's illustrations have the same simplicity, rhythm and beauty that distinguish the tales.

SHIP'S PARROT. By Honore Morrow and William J. Swartman. Illustrated by Gordon Grant. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1936. Pp. 180. \$2.00.

Ship's Monkey was good fun and *Ship's Parrot* is captivating. If the mysterious gray bird is sometimes unbelievably intelligent in his speech, he only does what every parrot owner feels sure a parrot might do. Anyway, it is David Pendyn, the little Cornish boy, who is the real hero of the tale. David is an appealing character. Left an orphan, educated in Bible literature, geography and ethics, he starts off to sea with his gray parrot, determined to reach Sheba.

The parrot knows English and Arabic and he also knows an enemy when he sees him. David and his parrot manage to trap a villain, rescue a kidnapped child, find a home for themselves and still keep on towards Sheba. In the process, their adventures are pleasant reading for children from nine years old to twelve. The plot is a bit far fetched but David is a winning hero and the "king gray" is indeed a king of birds!

SNIPP, SNAPP, SNURR, AND THE YELLOW SLED. By Maj Lindman. Drawings by Maj Lindman. Chicago: Albert Whitman and Company, 1936. Unpaged. \$1.00.

Every "Snipp, Snapp, Snurr" book is eagerly received by children. This one tells how the boys yearned for a certain yellow sled and set about earning it. Their zeal in pursuing their tasks leads to various mishaps but eventually the money is earned and the sled purchased. Then they give their prize to a weeping, fatherless boy, confident of their ability to work again and earn another sled.

As usual, the pictures are delightful and the format of the book excellent but the moral is very prominent. It is to be hoped Mrs. Lindman will give us more tales about the boys as natural and light hearted as *The Red Shoes*. This is good but alas! just one degree too good!

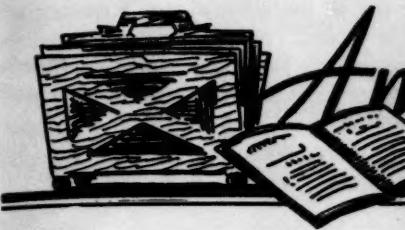
TALLY-HO. By Margaret S. Johnson and Helen Lossing Johnson. Illustrated by Helen L. Johnson. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1936. Pp. 120. \$1.75.

Coach dogs are, perhaps, not as well known in this country as they deserve to be. This story of an intelligent and lovable coach dog begins with his puppy days on a farm in the mountains of Dalmatia.

Tally-Ho's adventures are invariably determined by his passionate love of horses. He first serves the farm horses of his native Dalmatia, then a famous English hunter, next a team of New York fire horses and finally a thoroughbred in Virginia. This last home of his proves to be the best of all.

JONATHAN BING AND OTHER VERSES. By Beatrice Curtis Brown. Illustrated by Pelagie Doane. New York: Oxford University Press, 1936. Unpaged. \$7.5. (6-12 years.)

The thousands of children who have delightedly chanted, "Poor old Jonathan Bing" will welcome further news of the old gentleman. Here are some twenty poems by Beatrice Curtis Brown, half of which concern Mr. J. Bing. Not all of them are as felicitous as that first description of his excruciating struggles to visit the king but they are pleasant nonsense. We like especially, "Jonathan Bing Dances for Spring."



Editor, CORA M. MARTIN

THE MAGAZINES

A STUDY OF THE ADJUSTMENT DIFFICULTIES OF A GROUP OF WOMEN TEACHERS. By Dr. Leigh Peck. *The Journal of Educational Psychology, September, 1936.*

Dr. Peck used the "Thurstone Personality Schedule," the "Otis Test of Mental Ability," personal data sheets, and the teachers' own informal statements of their problems in order to determine the adjustment difficulties of one hundred women teachers attending the 1935 summer session of the University of Texas. A group of fifty-two other women students and a group of twenty-six men students were also studied in order to get comparative data.

One-third of the teachers studied by Dr. Peck were definitely maladjusted and one-sixth definitely needed psychiatric advice. Only one-fifth of the one hundred teachers could be classified as well-adjusted individuals. The symptoms of maladjustment found to be most common among the women teachers included: One-third of the group, a feeling of deserving a better lot in life; one-fifth, frequently low in spirits; one-fourth, in a frequent state of excitement; one-third described themselves as nervous; one-sixth admitted they lost their tempers quickly; one-fourth stated they were easily upset; one-third admitted shyness; one-fourth said they were critical of other people; one-fourth confessed to not planning their work ahead; and an equal number of disliking to take responsibility. One-fourth of the teachers stated they frequently suffer from indigestion, one-fifth said they were tired most of the time, one-tenth had had a nervous breakdown, one-fourth feared insanity and one-fourth said they suffered from a conflict between sex and morality.

The women, studied as a whole, reported a greater number of maladjustment symptoms than did the men and reliable differences were found

with respect to moodiness, frequent states of excitement, becoming upset easily, and an ignorance of sex.

Dr. Peck's study shows that adjustment improves with age and that the peak of maladjustment in women teachers is reached between the ages of twenty-six and thirty; married teachers are more poorly adjusted than unmarried, with widows better adjusted than both; and, the worst adjusted teacher is found in the primary grades, with the best adjusted teacher in the high schools.—Rosemary Walling, Department of Education and Psychology, University of San Antonio.

THREE SURVEYS OF TREATMENT MEASURES USED WITH CHILDREN. By Carl R. Rogers. *The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, January, 1937.*

The understanding of the origins of behavior problems far exceeds the knowledge of therapeutic procedures, reports Mr. Rogers in the results of three surveys of treatment applied to the group of children served by the Child Study Department of Rochester. These surveys are of cases treated individually.

The age range was from one to eighteen years. Due to disturbed social status, low economic levels, variety of religious affiliations, differing nationalities, and intelligence levels below average prevalent among these cases, the problems cover almost every behavior and personality problem.

A totally new environment—foster home or institution—constituted the first step in therapy for more than half the children. That sex misconduct was an important problem among girls and stealing among boys with their differing significance in the social mores may account for the recommendation of this treatment for more girls than boys. In the defective and superior

groups it was also recommended more frequently than in the intervening mentality groups.

Other types of therapy consisted in treatment to change parental attitudes; suggestions for changing methods of child management; suggestions for changes in the physical aspects of the family environment; educational therapy, including change of placement in school, grade, or course; suggested changes in the school's management of the child, and other miscellaneous educational suggestions; suggestions for social relationships, including recommendations for membership in some specified group and suggestions regarding friendships, social life, after-school activities; health suggestions involving medication, operations, dental care, diet; treatment through interviews between child and clinician, including such aims as development of insight, presentation of new goals and objectives, giving facts regarding sex or vocational possibilities, therapy in situations of serious emotional conflict; and finally, suggestions for obtaining further social, medical, psychological, or psychiatric data on which a more accurate diagnosis and a better plan of treatment could be based.

A follow-up study at the end of one year of fifty-eight cases accepted as new in January 1934 was made to determine to what extent the treatment plan had been carried through, and what relationship this had to success or failure in adjustment.

The rating of the general adjustment at the beginning and at the end of the year showed a marked change for the better. The group in which less than one-third of the recommendations were carried out was better adjusted when referred, made the least average progress, and ended the year rating an average adjustment. The group wherein they were fully carried out contained the greatest proportion of failures in adjustment, but made the greatest progress, ending the year as the best-adjusted group.

Rogers points out that scrutiny of the myriad individual suggestions for promotion of welfare among individual children reveals certain general principles operating. What seems so individual is productive of generalized techniques. He advocates the development of these, one of which is the personal relationship therapy rather

than the use of the latter alone. Treatment inclusive of social, educational, and medical therapy as well as psycho-therapy is selective in using definite types of therapy for definite types of children and problems, and is also effective.—Mary E. Brace, Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Texas.

ADULT STATUS OF HIGHLY INTELLIGENT CHILDREN. By Irving Lorge and Leta S. Hollingworth. *Journal of Genetic Psychology, September 1936, 49:215-226.*

The term "genius" has been used by Terman, and many others, to denote children testing at or above 140 IQ (Stanford-Binet). In the light of the developmental data presented in this study, it would appear that the term genius is thus misapplied, unless we wish to define as geniuses the best fourth of all students graduating from American colleges. Among individuals who have been followed from childhood to early maturity, those who test at about 140 IQ (S-B) are found to approximate the 74th percentile of college graduates. They are far from genius, if by that term is meant the degree of mental ability that is capable of outstanding original intellectual achievement.

It is only when we have an IQ (S-B) of at least 160 in a child, that we may begin to expect mildly noteworthy accomplishments, such as the winning of honors in a first class college.

Of especial interest in the present investigation is the subsequent history of the five persons who in childhood have achieved the extremely infrequent rating of 180 IQ (S-B) or higher. These persons still stand out from their contemporaries in mental tests and in achievement. They make the highest scores in intelligence tests for adults; they rank at the highest level among college graduates; they have won a long list of medals and honors and prizes. Two are already established in learned professions, and two others are engaged in graduate study preparatory to learned professions.

None of the subjects who tested in childhood around 140, 150, or 160 IQ approaches in honors won or in test scores at maturity the record of the group testing at 180 IQ or above in childhood.

Individuals testing at approximately 190 IQ

(S-B) in childhood "go through the ceiling" of available tests for adults by the time they are twenty-one years old. We cannot, at present, adequately measure the intelligence of these persons at maturity.

Perhaps the point at which genius begins is at or near IQ 180 (S-B) if we adhere to the dictionary definition of the word, "exalted intellectual power, marked by an extraordinary faculty for original creation, expression, or achievement," which, in its maturity, is beyond the reach of available methods of measurement.
—Leigh Peck, Psychologist, University of Texas Nursery School.

COLOR AND PICTURE CHOICES OF YOUNG CHILDREN. By Gertrude Hildreth. *Journal of Genetic Psychology, December, 1936, 49:427-535.*

One hundred thirty-eight children, ages three to six years, average IQ 120, were asked to name ten color samples (pink, gray, green, red, purple, yellow, black, orange, blue, brown), to

name the preferred color, to express a preference for picture subjects among a series of sixteen pictures, and to express a preference among reproductions of a single picture in four styles.

Thirty per cent of the group below five years of age named all ten colors correctly and an equal percentage named nine correctly. Seventy-five per cent of the group over five years of age named all ten colors correctly. Orange was the favorite of both age groups, with pink second and red third.

The picture-choice test revealed an overwhelming preference for pictures portraying action and for those including animals. The picture of a boy and girl feeding a white rabbit was the final preference of both age groups.

When shown the same picture in four styles—monotone, outline drawing, color, and silhouette—two-thirds of all the children expressed a preference for the picture in color.—L. Lucile Emerson, Teacher in Charge, University of Texas Nursery School.



City Life in Third Grade

(Continued from page 373)

store and she found the safe was opened.
Mrs. Grouch: Yes, it was wide open.
Police: Here—Let's take finger prints. Yes, here are some on the safe. (They take prints of the family) They aren't any of yours.
Mr. Grouch: It looks like a big man's mark.
Police: Yes, we'll go down to the city hall, and see if these match any we have on file down there.
Mr. Grouch: Thanks a lot for coming over.
Police (on phone): Hello, Grouch's? We have the thief. He's a very big man. We have him in jail, and we'll bring the money over.
Mr. Grouch: They've caught him.
Mrs. Grouch: Isn't that fine? I see them. Here they are. (The police come again)

Mr. Grouch: Hello, thank you. I'll put the money in the safe now.

Mrs. Grouch: Should we get a new combination on our safe?

Police: That's a good idea. When he gets out, he might come again.

Mr. Grouch: I'm so thankful you got our money, but where does the money come from for all that fingerprinting and for you policemen?

Police: Taxes pay for that.

Mr. Grouch: That's good. Goodbye.

Mrs. Grouch: We'd better pay all our taxes.

Mr. Grouch: Yes, there's the museum, and the roads, and the hospital, and we had our fire, and now this. I'll get the money and take it right down to the city hall now.

Editor, JOHN A. HOCKETT

Research... ABSTRACT'S

PERSONALITY STUDIES OF SIX-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN IN CLASSROOM SITUATIONS. By Alberta Munkres. *Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 681. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936.*

The current reaction to almost exclusive emphasis in earlier teacher training programs on subject matter and methods of retailing it to pupils is being expressed in several ways. This study was undertaken to show the possibilities of providing teachers in training with fairly simple methods of observing and analyzing the social adjustments and personality development of children. There is no doubt that experienced teachers, as well as student teachers, could profit from a study of the methods used and the ten case studies of six-year-olds presented.

The experimenter worked out a guide to observation covering the following five areas of experience: social relationships, work relationships, position in group, emotional responses, and special manifestations. She then made preliminary observations of one hour each in several classrooms representing different types of educational programs. Following this, 80 five-minute observations were made of each of the previously selected ten children. Following a definite system of shorthand recording, she secured data on various types of behavior, classified under the five categories. Records were kept by other observers in order to check the reliability of the method.

The resulting reports present illuminating insight into the problems, failures, and successes of these young children in developing satisfactory adjustments to the group and in building personality patterns. The conclusion is inevitable that in many cases the teacher was not aware of the problems facing the child and did not contribute to their solution.

Distinctly different personalities are seen emerging in the records presented. No abstract can take the place of a study of the records presented. The following quotation represents the very briefest concluding summary presented for one of the children:

"Carl's style of life in this situation might be stated somewhat as follows: 'For me, the most important thing in the world is to get my lessons. I like doing them because I can do them well, and because my teacher gives me first place when they are good. I wish we didn't have to play foolish games, but since the teacher wants it, I shall do the best I can to please her. It is very important that I understand just how she is feeling and just what she wants me to do, so I watch her carefully. The children are all right except when they interfere with me and my work. I do not know exactly what to do about it, but I try to take care of myself, and I can push and punch to get them out of my way.'"

"INTERRELATIONS BETWEEN THE PRESCHOOL CHILD'S BEHAVIOR AND CERTAIN FACTORS IN THE HOME." By Berta Weiss Hattwick. *Child Development, September 1936, 7:200-226.*

Rating sheets were devised and used by teachers in 18 nursery schools to yield data on 35 types of preschool behavior and on 15 factors in the home and family relationships of young children. The 335 children studied included 171 girls and 164 boys, ranging in age from 23 months to 68 months, with median age of three and one-half years. Nearly half the group were of white descent, 100 were Negroes, and 89 were of foreign extraction.

Data on the preschool behavior of the children represented an average of three independent ratings by teachers who saw the children daily. Ratings on the home situation were made

by one teacher who had visited the home at least once and who felt reasonably sure of her judgment. Tetrachoric inter-correlations were calculated to compare various types of preschool behavior with certain factors in the home.

A definite relationship was found between over-attentiveness in the home and certain infantile reactions in the school situation. Over-attentiveness included parents' tendencies to let the child have his own way, to be over-solicitous and over-anxious, to treat the child as a baby, and failure to let him do things he could do for himself. The infantile reactions related to over-attentiveness included wasting time at routine tasks, asking unnecessary help, crying easily, leaving tasks unfinished, dawdling, having temper outbursts, and sucking thumbs. There was also a tendency for children from such homes to exhibit withdrawing rather than aggressive types of behavior, such as avoiding play with others, telling fanciful stories, and remaining near adults. Children from over-attentive homes also lacked emotional control, expressed in nervous habits, jealousy, tenseness, sulking, and outbursts of temper.

Other homes were characterized by irresponsible or negligent parents, who were inconsistent in handling the child and who failed to take the proper care of him. Children from such homes tended to seek the attention and security which the home failed to provide. They did this by showing off, seeking praise, asking unnecessary help, telling fanciful stories, building nervous habits, and crying easily. They also exhibited

certain aggressive tendencies such as misrepresenting facts, mistreating animals, taking the property of others, attacking others, breaking objects, and refusing to share with others. These aggressive tendencies have been shown to be closely associated with juvenile delinquency in older children who come from broken or negligent homes. It is interesting to find these reactions developing at a very early age.

Children who come from homes characterized by a happy and calm atmosphere were less negativistic than those from tense homes in which fatigue, illness, nervousness, impatience and quarreling were common. Children from these homes were more likely to be uncooperative, to have more emotional upsets, and more difficulty in social adjustments. There was, however, a negative correlation between calm and happy homes and such behavior as refusal to comply, refusal of food, ignoring of requests, and resistance to resting.

Children who shared work and play experiences with their parents had a better understanding of property rights and values, had better work habits, and were more cooperative than children who did not have such experiences. Children who shared responsibilities in the home were not so likely to grumble, suck their thumbs, refuse food, dawdle, cry easily, and have outbursts of temper.

The study consistently reveals the importance of a happy, calm and understanding home in developing cooperative behavior and satisfactory emotional adjustments in children.

The Kindergarten in America

(Continued from page 363)

has published a number of bulletins, prepared by one or another of its committees, dealing with major problems of early childhood education. The Literature Committee has selected and edited the material for several books. Appropriately enough, one of the two bulletins for this centennial year will bear the title, *The Modern Kindergarten: An Integral Part of the Elementary School*. It should be the natural follow-up of this short

series of historical articles.

The forward looking spirit which has been characteristic of kindergarten education during most of its history is evidenced in the deliberations of its 1937 Convention with its central theme, "Today's Trends in Childhood Education." What are these trends? What are the schools doing about them? How will they affect childhood education tomorrow? X

MARY E. LEEPER



News . . . HERE AND THERE

NEW A.C.E. BRANCHES

The number of new Branches for the year has now reached fifty-two. The following have affiliated since the March journal went to press:

Elementary Education Club, Milledgeville, Georgia

Macomb Primary Club, Illinois

Gary Association for Childhood Education, Indiana

Wabash Association for Childhood Education, Indiana

Glassboro Association for Childhood Education, New Jersey

Kindergarten Primary Club of Bowling Green State University, Ohio

Eastern State Normal School Association for Childhood Education, South Dakota

Jackson County Teachers Association, Gainsboro, Tennessee

Knox County Association for Childhood Education, Tennessee

Galveston Association for Childhood Education, Texas

Elementary Council of Childhood Education, Nacogdoches, Texas

CONVENTION REPORTS

As you read this issue, the 1937 convention of the Association for Childhood Education will be in session at San Antonio, Texas. In addition to the regular material, the May issue of *Childhood Education* will carry reports of this convention. Non-subscribers who wish this particular issue may secure it from the Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington, D.C. Price 30c.

NEW BULLETIN

The bulletin on Equipment and Supplies is now ready for distribution. The A.C.E. Com-

mittee on Equipment and Supplies, Frances M. Berry, Chairman, has worked for two years to make this bulletin of real value. Teachers, administrators, and those preparing to teach will welcome this publication. It may be ordered from the Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington, D.C. Price 50c.

Publication of the two 1937 educational bulletins for A.C.E. contributing members has been unavoidably delayed. It is expected that the first of these, "Foundations in Arithmetic," will reach contributing members and the presidents and secretaries of Branches about April 1. The second bulletin, "The Modern Kindergarten" will be mailed before May 1.

MICHIGAN A.C.E.

The Grand Rapids Kindergarten-Primary Club will be host to the Michigan A.C.E. on Saturday, May 1. The program centers around the theme, "The Influence of Science and Research on Programs for the Education of Children."

TEXAS CONVENTION CHAIRMAN

Those attending the A.C.E. convention in San Antonio and other friends of Lucy Claire Hoard, Texas Convention Chairman, President of the Texas A.C.E., and Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor of the El Paso Public Schools, will be interested to know that she has recently published a booklet of 108 pages on "Teaching English to the Spanish-Speaking Child in the Primary Grades." This booklet is the result of several years of experimental practice in El Paso.

ANNE BECK

Word has been received that Miss Anne Beck, of Chattanooga, Tennessee, died on February 13,

1937. Miss Beck taught in the public schools of Chattanooga for many years. She was the first president of the Chattanooga Branch of the A.C.E. and served as President of the Tennessee A.C.E. in 1935. One of her associates writes, "She was a teacher who knew how to adapt modern ideas of education to the needs of her pupils. Her schoolroom was a happy place where the welfare of each individual was carefully considered. We teachers have lost a loyal, inspiring friend."

ONE HUNDREDTH ANNIVERSARY

The Association for Childhood Education is observing this year the One Hundredth Anniversary of the first kindergarten. The purpose of this celebration is to trace the history of early childhood education, to depict the present status of the movement, and to plan future developments. Branches of the Association will celebrate this anniversary, using it to acquaint people with the work now going on in public and private schools. Each locality has its own pioneers, its own history. Many local celebrations will occur at the time of Froebel's birthday, April 21.

The Centennial Committee, Edna Dean Baker, Chairman, has prepared "The Kindergarten Centennial," a brief historical outline of the development of early childhood education during the one hundred year period. This outline will supply facts which writers and speakers may need. Copies may be secured from the Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. Price 15c.

TRIBUTE TO THE KINDERGARTEN

In observance of the One Hundredth Anniversary of the kindergarten, the United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education Radio Project, is planning a series of coast-to-coast radio programs. The first of these will be heard April 2, at 6:00 P.M., E.S.T. This program, dramatizing the part the Office of Education has played in the development of the kindergarten, will be featured on the "Education in the News" series heard over the NBC Red Network. In addition, a series of at least five special programs to be devoted to the growth

of the kindergarten is being planned. One of these probably will be adapted especially for west coast stations and another for southern stations.

All scripts will be prepared by the Script Division of the Office of Education Radio Project, in cooperation with Mary Dabney Davis, a member of the staff of the Office of Education and of the Centennial Committee of the Association for Childhood Education.

SAFETY EDUCATION MATERIAL

Interesting materials that will aid both the school and the home in teaching safety may be secured from your local A.A.A. Motor Club. If there is no branch of the club in your vicinity, write to the American Automobile Association, Washington, D.C.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION

The thirtieth annual meeting of the American Home Economics Association will be held in Kansas City, Missouri, June 21 to 25, 1937. Chairman of local arrangements is Miss Anna E. Hussey, supervisor of home economics in Kansas City, Missouri. Preparations for the program are in general charge of the executive secretary of the American Home Economics Association, Mrs. Katherine McFarland Ansley.

NEW KINDERGARTENS

The School Committee of Fitchburg, Massachusetts, recently voted to establish eight kindergartens in the elementary schools of the city.

Word comes from Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania, that three new kindergartens have been opened this year.

CONFERENCE ON ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The Department of Elementary Principals of the National Education Association is sponsoring a summer conference on the administration and supervision of the elementary school. The conference will be held at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, July 5-16. For information, write to Eva G. Pinkston, Secretary, Department of Elementary Principals, 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington, D.C.



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